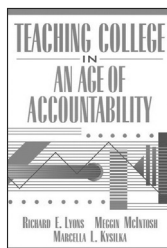


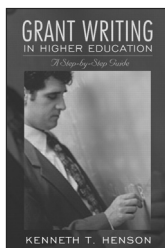
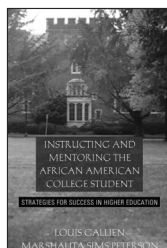
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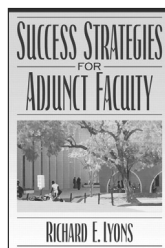
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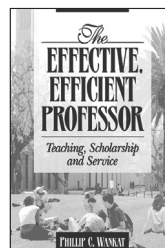
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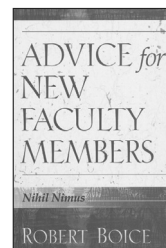
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Instructor's Manual

for

Kimmel and Aronson

Sociology Now The Essentials

prepared by

Jennifer Lerner
Northern Virginia Community College



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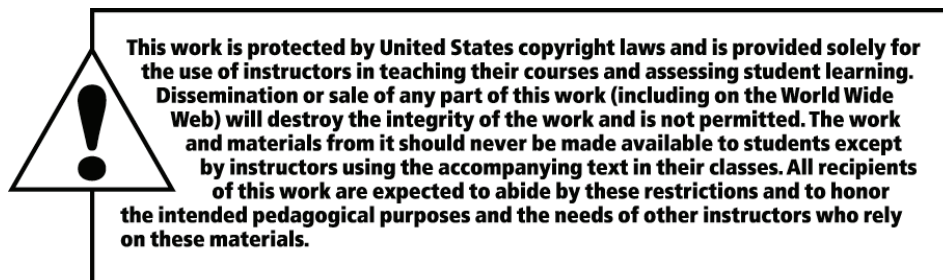
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Chapter One: What Is Sociology?

Chapter Summary

Sociology is a unique way of viewing the world, involving both/and thinking and using a scientific approach to study the complex dynamics of individuals and their social contexts. The field of sociology developed out of the Enlightenment, after which a variety of European and American thinkers developed the field into what it is today. In recent years in sociology, scholars who were originally excluded from the canon have received new recognition for their important work, and the division between the functionalist and the conflict theory paradigms has begun to be replaced by the concepts of globalization and multiculturalism. These new lenses help us understand the both/and nature of today's world, in which we see the postmodern and the premodern, connections and divisions, both shaping our identities and experiences simultaneously.

Learning Objectives

- To be able to explain the nature of the sociological imagination and how it differs from other social sciences.
- To understand the historical origins of sociology and its major organizing questions.
- To become familiar with the contributions of the intellectual founders of sociology, including those whose work is not part of the classical canon.
- To understand how symbolic interactionists, functionalists, and conflict theorists view society and social interaction.
- To understand the new sociological lenses, globalization and multiculturalism, and why they have begun to supplant other paradigms.

Chapter Outline

I. Sociology as a Way of Seeing: Although the meaning of sociology is not immediately evident from its name, it is a very important social science that helps us understand our world better. It is a way of seeing, often called the *sociological imagination*.

A. Beyond Either/Or: Seeing Sociologically

- In our daily lives, we see evidence both that the world is falling apart and that things are better than ever. We often vacillate between the two positions as it suits us. Sociologists, rather than using this either/or thinking, use both/and thinking, looking at both the problems and the improvements in society.

B. Making Connections: Sociological Dynamics

- Sociologists examine the connections between things getting better and things getting worse. They are as interested in explaining social order as they are in explaining social breakdown.

C. Sociological Understanding

- When sociologists examine social order and social disorder, they do so by looking beyond the individual, studying the context in which the individual took her/his actions.

II. Doing Sociology: Sociology is a way of seeing any subject matter. It involves acknowledging the complexity of social problems and temporarily stepping back from political positions in order to see all aspects of the problem objectively.

A. Sociology and Science

- Sociology is a social science. Some sociologists use methods much like those of other scientists, while others use methods more like scholars in the humanities. However, as a social science, sociology also has distinct differences from these other fields. Unlike the subjects of other scientific research, the subjects of sociological research are aware and have their own volition, which requires special approaches to researching them. And while scholars in the humanities study texts for their own sake, sociologists study them to test ideas and identify patterns in society.
- Sociology is also different from other social sciences because sociologists study a broader set of issues and interpret those issues differently than do other social scientists.

B. Getting beyond “Common Sense”

- Sociology often shows common sense ideas to be untrue. Common sense uses stereotypes, leaves no room for variation, and uses either/or thinking rather than addressing complexity. Sociology, in contrast, looks at the interaction of different forces in shaping our lives. It does so by examining the context in which we act and at the same time, acknowledging how individuals shape the context.

III. Where did Sociology come from?

A. Before Sociology

- Philosophers like John Locke, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, and Thomas Jefferson studied questions of the relationship between individuals and society, the nature of society, and the roles of government and of individual liberty during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. These issues became some of the major questions addressed by the new field of sociology.

B. The Invention of Sociology

- The Enlightenment thinkers mentioned above were part of major changes in American and European society that altered the way we thought about the world, including issues like the nature of community, the nature of government, and the meaning of individualism. Sociology developed along with these social changes, and it both praised and criticized the changes.

C. Classical Sociological Thinkers

- Most early sociologists believed in the idea of progress, with society improving in stages through the application of science. The early sociologists included:
 1. Auguste Comte, who coined the term “sociology” and believed that the field would synthesize other knowledge and allow sociologists to help improve society by focusing on moral progress.
 2. Alexis de Tocqueville, who argued that democracy can either enhance or erode individual liberty and suggested that Americans needed to prevent the concentration of wealth and power, emphasize the free spirit of individuals, and employ many intermediate institutions in order to maintain individual liberty in our democracy.
 3. Karl Marx, who argued that class was the organizing principle of social life and encouraged social thinkers to focus on material concerns rather than idealist concerns. Marx’s major work examined the development of capitalism and how it was defined by inequality between capital and labor. He predicted that this inequality would lead to revolution.
 4. Emile Durkheim, who examined the social origins of seemingly individual behaviors (like suicide) and focused much of his work on examining the moral bonds (solidarity) that connect us to the social collectivity.

5. Max Weber, who advocated an interpretive and value-free sociology and whose work focused on rationality in the modern world and how it both benefits and traps us. He also examined the relationships between religion and economic activity as well as the social elements of class position, which he called status.
6. Georg Simmel, who studied the forms of social interaction (e.g., domination, competition) rather than their content in order to better understand how people are enabled to express their individuality.

D. American Sociological Thinkers

- Three American sociologists took the ideas of European sociologists, described above, and developed American versions of those ideas, earning themselves a place in the classical sociological canon:
 1. Thorstein Veblen, who examined the class divisions in American society, including how those class relationships distorted the benevolent forces of technology.
 2. Lester Ward, who rejected the Social Darwinism of many early American sociologists and argued that each society needed to improve through social planning and reform. He also believed that the social “inferiors” of society are equal to their “superiors” and only need education to be able to fully participate in their democracy.
 3. George Herbert Mead, who distinguished between the “I” (the inherent, biological part of the self) and the “me” (the self-conscious part of the self developed over time through social interactions).

E. The “Other” Canon

- Some early sociologists were not included in the classical canon because the issues they raised (such as the ways inequality and identity are derived from race, class, ethnicity, and gender) were not seen as legitimate at the time. In fact, they were often denounced for their work. Today, the contributions of this work are being newly recognized. For example:
 1. Mary Wollstonecraft, Margaret Fuller, and Charlotte Perkins Gilman produced important work on the position of women in society, including advocating gender equality and describing the factors, such as women’s economic dependence on men through marriage and women’s under-recognized social contributions through housework and childrearing, that mitigated against it.
 2. Frederick Douglass, a former slave, examined the institution of slavery and argued that slaveholding was learned behavior that could be changed.

3. W. E. B. Du Bois conducted a series of scientific studies of the condition of African Americans and the psychological effects of racism to demonstrate the argument that “the problem of the twentieth century is the problem of the color line.”

IV. Contemporary Sociology: Contemporary sociologists often look to the work of classical sociologists for inspiration in analyzing current social issues. Sociology in the United States developed as an academic field between 1930 and 1960 and attempted to answer two questions: (1) What can sociology contribute to the study of the self (or in other words, how is sociology different from psychology)?, and (2) What processes ensure social order (or in other words, why have there been such great social upheavals in some places, while other places, like the U.S., have stayed fairly stable)?

A. Symbolic Interactionism and the Sociology of the Self

- *Symbolic interactionists* like Erving Goffman, who follow in the tradition started by George Herbert Mead, examine how the individual’s interactions with his or her environment shape the individual’s sense of “self.” In particular, they examine how we use symbols (such as language, religion, or art) to navigate the social world. Goffman introduced the concepts of the dramaturgical model, frontstage and backstage behavior, and total institutions to help us understand these processes.

B. Structural Functionalism and Social Order

- Talcott Parsons, Robert Merton, and others created the *structural functionalist paradigm* to analyze society as a system of distinct, integrated levels that enable the world, and the individuals within it, to find stability, order, and meaning. This paradigm focuses on balance and equilibrium and the functions of each interaction and institution for reproducing social life. Merton added the concepts of *manifest and latent functions* to the paradigm.
- Functionalists followed Durkheim’s idea that society is held together by shared beliefs, and added to it the idea that each social institution helps integrate individuals into social life. When they identified social problems in society, they believed that the problems were caused by social institutions not fully doing their job at integrating people, which implied that improving our institutions could fix our social problems.
- Structural functionalism worked well as a paradigm to explain American society during the 1950s, a time of stability and conformity. It began to be challenged, however, by the end of that decade, when people started to point out that the things that were functional for some groups were not functional for others.

C. Conflict Theories: An Alternative Paradigm

- Sociologists in the 1960s drew on the work of Marx and Weber to develop a new paradigm, *conflict theory*, which argued that American institutions caused our social problems by allocating resources unequally and thus creating structural inequality. These theorists—who focused on various types of inequality including class, racial, and gender inequality—believed that both social order and social resistance or change were explained by the struggles between the haves and the have-nots.
- Functionalism and conflict theory were the competing paradigms in sociology for several decades, but recently, the global economic and political changes that have occurred during that time have led sociologists to begin analyzing the world through new lenses.

D. Globalization and Multiculturalism: New Lenses, New Issues

- There are two new lenses sociologists today have developed to understand these major changes:
 1. *Globalization*, a *macro-level* perspective focused on the economic, political, social, and cultural interconnections among different groups around the world, and
 2. *Multiculturalism*, a mostly *micro-level* perspective focused on understanding the very different ways that different groups of people approach issues, construct identities, and create institutions that express their needs.
- Globalization and multiculturalism are interconnected forces shaping our lives. As they continue to affect society, we see both more connections among people and groups and ever-increasing divisions and conflicts between groups, such as ethnic cleansing and a restoration of traditional gender roles. Some people assume these trends are opposites, or clashing with each other, but in fact, they are reactions to each other and produced by each other. We are all affected by both forces simultaneously, and the forces that hold us together (such as religion or patriotism) are the same forces that divide us. Race, class, and gender are key parts of the changes brought by globalization and multiculturalism.

E. Sociology and Modernism

- Classical sociologists believed strongly in the idea of society's progress toward better stages of development (a key element of *modernism*), although they were also ambivalent about that progress because they saw dangers in it.

- Today, the idea of progress from one stage to another has been called into question. We can see that societies always include elements of multiple stages in them at any one time, and that societies are always interconnected with other societies and global institutions that affect how they develop. Sociology is still a modernist science in many ways, because it focuses on using science and reason to improve human societies, but it is also increasingly taking a *postmodernist* approach, examining society as always being challenged and always in flux. Meanwhile, as the postmodernist understanding has grown, we have seen a resurgence of premodern ideas.

V. Sociology in the 21st Century, Sociology and You: Sociology has undergone major changes over the past several decades, reflecting the major changes in the world it studies. Sociology's unique way of seeing the world and its efforts to include women and racial, ethnic, and sexual minorities among its practitioners make it a vital social science in academia today.

Key Terms from Chapter One

canon: the core texts or thinkers in an academic field (p. 19).

conflict theory: theory that suggests that the dynamics of society, both of social order and social resistance, are the result of the conflict among different groups (p. 25).

generalized other: a person's notion of the common values, norms, and expectations of other people in a society (p. 20).

globalization: the economic, political, cultural, and social interconnections among different groups of people all over the world, a dynamic web that connects us to one another and also creates cleavages among different groups of people (p. 26).

latent functions: the hidden, unintended functions of an institution or interaction (p. 24).

macrolevel analysis: analysis focused on large-scale institutional processes (p. 26).

manifest functions: the overt and obvious functions of an institution or interaction (p. 24).

McDonaldization: the homogenizing spread of consumerism around the globe (p. 29).

mechanical solidarity: form of solidarity in traditional society, where life is uniform and people are similar and share a common culture and sense of morality (p. 17).

microlevel analysis: analysis focused on ways in which different groups of people and even individuals construct their identities based on membership in those groups (p. 26).

modernism: the belief in evolutionary progress through the application of science (p. 30).

multiculturalism: literally, the understanding of many cultures; a way to understand the very different ways that different groups of people approach issues, construct identities, and create institutions that express their needs (p. 26).

organic solidarity: form of solidarity in modern society, where there is a division of labor and diverse and conflicting interests, and common values are less obvious (p. 17).

paradigm: a coherent model of how society works and how individuals are socialized into their roles within it (p. 23).

postmodernism: perspective that suggests that the meaning of social life may not be found in conforming to rigid patterns of development but rather in the creative assembling of interactions and interpretations that enable us to negotiate our way in the world (p. 31).

social Darwinism: theory that saw each succeeding society as improving on the one before it (p. 19).

sociological imagination: sees our lives as *contextual* lives—our individual identities are sensible only in the social contexts in which we find ourselves (p. 4).

sociology: the study of human behavior in society (p. 5).

structural functionalism: theory that social life consists of several distinct integrated levels that enable the world—and individuals who are within in—to find stability, order, and meaning (p. 23).

symbolic interactionism: theory that examines how an individual's interactions with his or her environment help people develop a sense of "self" (p. 23).

Key People from Chapter One

Auguste Comte: French theorist who coined the term "sociology" (p. 13).

Alexis de Tocqueville: French theorist and historian known for his studies of American democracy (p. 14).

Frederick Douglass: the most important African-American intellectual of the nineteenth century, whose work focused on the cruelty and illogic of slavery (p. 21).

W. E. B. Du Bois: African American scholar who was one of the greatest sociologists in our history, best known for his work on racial inequality and race relations (p. 21).

Emile Durkheim: early sociologist who looked for the social origins of even the most individual and personal issues, as in his classic study of suicide (p. 16-18).

Margaret Fuller: America's first female foreign correspondent, whose work became the intellectual foundation of the American women's movement (p. 21).

Charlotte Perkins Gilman: early feminist sociologist who examined how women's economic dependence on men encouraged "feminine" behaviors (p. 22).

Erving Goffman: symbolic interactionist sociologist who created the dramaturgical model to understand social interaction (p. 23).

Karl Marx: the most important socialist thinker, who offered the sociological insight that class was the organizing principle of social life (p. 14-16).

George Herbert Mead: American sociologist who studied the development of individual identity through social processes (p. 20).

Thomas Merton: student of Talcott Parsons who clarified functionalism and extended its analysis, including presenting the concepts of manifest and latent functions (p. 24-25).

C. Wright Mills: coined the term "the sociological imagination" (p. 4-5).

Talcott Parsons: Harvard sociologist who was the central figure in structural-functionalist thinking (p. 23-25).

Georg Simmel: philosopher who contributed to all the social sciences, in particular seeking a subject matter that set sociology apart from the other social sciences (p. 18-19).

Thorstein Veblen: American sociologist who examined class divisions and tensions between the benevolent forces of technology and the profit system that distorts them (p. 19).

Lester Ward: one of the founders of American sociology; rebelled against the social Darwinism to which early American sociology was tied (p. 19-20).

Max Weber: early sociologist best known for his studies of "rationality" in the modern world, and of the connections between religion and economic activity (p. 17-18).

Mary Wollstonecraft: called the first major feminist, Wollstonecraft was a passionate advocate of the equality of the sexes (p. 20-21).

Try It Exercise: Historical Figures in Sociology Examined (does not appear in text)

OBJECTIVE: Explore one of the historical figures in sociology and examine his or her significance to sociology.

STEP 1: Plan

Your instructor may assign each student a historical figure to examine in more detail.

STEP 2: Research

Search the Internet and other library resources to find detailed information on your historical figure. Include information like:

- Name, date, and location of birth and death
- Picture (if you can locate one)
- Educational background and a list of significant writings
- Brief discussion of most important sociological contribution
- Critiques of this historical figure and obstacles faced by this historical figure
- List all resources used in this project

STEP 3: Discuss

Be prepared to either turn in your findings or share them in class.

Instructor's Notes: This assignment can take many forms and depending on the nature of the class, you may want to consider some of them. Students often overemphasize the biography of the particular historical figure and you may want to remind them to focus on the significance of this historical figure to sociology. Here are some optional ways to assign this learning activity:

1. Do as an in-class activity by breaking students into groups and giving them some time to look up materials in textbook or online and report back to class.
2. Consider having students design posters with information about assigned historical figure and sharing posters in class.
3. Assign a traditional one page report.

These are two great Web resources that you may want to share with students:

<http://www.sociosite.net/topics/sociologists.php>

<http://faculty.olympic.edu/cbarker/deadsociologistsociety.htm>

Assessment/grading: All of the activities in this textbook can be done in class to encourage a more “engaged” classroom environment. Some instructors use activities to take class attendance (it is not enough to just come to class) and others may choose to assign a grade value to some of the assignments in this textbook.

Try It Exercise: Applying Sociological Paradigms (does not appear in text)

OBJECTIVE: This activity is designed to help you explore the three major sociological paradigms of functionalism, conflict, and the globalization/multiculturalism paradigm.

STEP 1: Be sure to read over each of the three paradigms as presented in your textbook before beginning this assignment.

STEP 2: Using any newspaper or magazine database, find an article that represents each of three paradigms presented in this chapter. For the purposes of this exercise, you will need to print them out or reference a website for the particular article. After locating the articles, answer the following questions for each paradigm/article. Keep in mind that you will answer these questions for each paradigm.

1. Name of article?
2. Reference for article?
3. What paradigm does this article represent? Why? Be specific citing information from your textbook and the article to make your point.

STEP 3: Thinking about Postmodernism

This chapter concludes with an interesting discussion on postmodernism. Find three articles or websites about the topic of postmodernism and list them below. What do you think about postmodernism? Explain.

STEP 4: Be prepared to either turn in your findings or share them in class.

Instructor's Notes: This assignment can be difficult for some students and, as with many of the activities in this textbook, there are numerous variations. This particular activity can also be done in class. Many instructors will locate articles and/or just particular paragraphs from articles ahead of class and ask students to break into groups and discuss the particular paradigms they believe to be presented in the article. This is often a great way to assess understanding of the "paradigms." It is often a good idea to demonstrate this assignment in class by doing a practice application assignment to help them understand how to apply the paradigms. Students will often think they understand the paradigms but find applying them a challenging task. Here are some other variations of this assignment to consider:

1. Assigning as a group/partner activity outside of class time by giving each group only one paradigm to research.
2. Consider hosting a "postmodernism" debate in class.
3. Rather than assign articles, ask students to come up with a list of movies and/or television shows that seem to suggest a particular sociological paradigm. Students would be expected to explain their reasons for each choice and share in class. This also works well with music and music lyrics and students often have fun doing this in class.

This assignment can be a very useful learning tool especially if shared and presented in class.

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (p. 24)

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2004

About how often do you pray? Almost sixty percent of respondents reported praying at least once a day. Women were more likely than men to pray several times a day or once a day. Results for examining by race were also striking, with 55% of black respondents praying several times a day as compared to 27% of white respondents.

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTION

1. What social and cultural factors do you think account for the gender differences in reports of prayer frequency? What about the race difference?

What Do You Think/What Does America Think (does not appear in text)

Your Outlook on Life: Are People Basically Fair?

Sociologists are also interested in those aspects of social life that contribute to our evaluations of others, such as the social positions we occupy. For example, what affects one's outlook on social life and on others with whom we interact? How do things like race, class, and gender relate to one's perceptions of others? So, what do you think?

Do you think most people would try to take advantage of you if they got a chance, or would they try to be fair?

1. Take advantage
2. Fair
3. Depends

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2004

Do you think most people would try to take advantage of you if they got a chance, or would they try to be fair? Half of all respondents thought most people would try to be fair, and forty percent thought they would try to take advantage of others. Nine percent said it depended. Social class differences in responses were striking, with those in the lower class being most likely to think people would try to take advantage, and least likely to think people would try to be fair. Those in the middle class were most likely to think people would try to be fair. When examined by sex, the range of responses was small, but when examined by race, black respondents (58.8%) were far more likely than white respondents (34.4%) to say people would try to take advantage of others.

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Half of all respondents thought most people would be fair. Is that more or less than what you expected? How do you explain these results?
2. While gender did not appear to have an effect on respondents' perceptions of others, social class and race had a striking effect. Looking at these differences, and thinking about positions, why do you think these differences exist?

References: Davis, James A., Tom W. Smith, and Peter V. Marsden. General Social Surveys 1972-2004:[Cumulative file] [Computer file]. 2nd ICPSR version. Chicago, IL: National Opinion Research Center [producer], 2005. Storrs, CT: Roper Center for Public Opinion Research, University of Connecticut/ Ann Arbor, MI: Inter-university

Teaching SuggestionsFilm

- *How To Get Fat Without Really Trying*: This ABC News special explores the epidemic of obesity in the United States through a sociological lens. It questions individualistic explanations for obesity by examining government subsidies, advertising, and other social factors. It is an effective way to illustrate the difference between common sense and the sociological imagination.

In-Class Activities

- *The "Other Canon"*: The authors discuss several important sociological thinkers who are not generally recognized as part of the canon. Lecture on some of their important contributions to the field. Compare their contributions to those of the thinkers who *are* part of the canon, and discuss with students how race, class, gender, and other factors affect how knowledge is created and how social science developed.
- *Reading the Classics*: Choose brief, compelling excerpts from some of the sociological classics referenced in the text or listed in the references section of this manual. (Focus on choosing selections that are readable, applicable to current social concerns, and about topics students will find immediately engaging, like race relations or gender inequality.) Ask students to read the selections and to discuss, in writing, in small groups, and/or as a whole class, the relevance of the theorists' ideas for American society today. Discuss with students why we still face some of the same social problems that sociologists pointed out to us so many years ago. Use this discussion as a way to emphasize the value of the sociological perspective and the insights it can offer us.

Projects, Papers, and Homework Exercises

- *Applying the Sociological Imagination*: Ask students to find a newspaper or magazine article that discusses a social problem. Have them write a short paper in which they discuss how the author explains the social problem and whether or not he or she is providing a sociological perspective on the problem. Also ask students to come up with other contextual factors a sociologist might raise in studying this social problem.
- *Exploring Sociology as a Discipline*: The authors discuss how sociology is different from other social sciences. To help students solidify this information, have them do some research on several social sciences. Have each student visit the website of a major professional association for sociology, psychology, political science, and economics. Ask them to explore the sites with particular attention to the central focus and major sub-fields of each discipline. Have students either write a short paper on their findings, or come prepared to share them in class.

For Further Research and Reading

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Additional Sources

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Chapter Two: Culture and Society

Chapter Summary

The concept of culture is a core way for sociologists to understand the context that links biography to history. Sociologists study cultural diversity both within and between cultures, examining the six elements of culture (material culture, symbols, language, rituals, norms, and values) to understand how culture shapes human behavior and beliefs. Sociologists also study the political issues behind culture, such as the difference between ethnocentric and cultural relativist views of other societies, the social forces dividing high culture and popular culture, and how cultural change may be imposed by others.

Learning Objectives

- To understand what culture is and why it is a core concept in the sociological perspective.
- To be able to discuss and give examples of cultural diversity both between and within societies.
- To understand the difference between ethnocentrism and cultural relativism and why sociologists strive for the latter.
- To understand and give examples of the six elements of culture.
- To understand the difference between high and popular culture and what social forces define them.
- To be able to explain how cultures change.

Chapter Outline

I. Introduction: We often feel that we are both one with all of humanity and that we are unique individuals determining our own experiences. The goal of sociology is to connect those two levels of reality (as C. Wright Mills put it, to connect biography to history).

II. Culture: The concept of culture is one of the core lenses through which sociologists see the world. *Culture* (the sets of values and ideals that we understand to define morality, good and evil, appropriate and inappropriate, larger structural forces, and how we perceive them) is part of what differentiates human life from that of other animals. Unlike other animals, humans have a conscious history, transmitting culture from generation to generation. Culture includes both *material culture* and *nonmaterial culture*. The ideas that make up our nonmaterial culture vary in relation to the material culture the society experiences. Culture also shapes human nature and what we believe we “know” about how people will naturally behave.

A. Cultural Diversity

- Cultures around the world, and even subcultures within one culture, are extremely diverse, and we may find the differences appealing or repulsive. We often experience *culture shock* when encountering a different culture.
- The condemnation of other cultures because they are different is called *ethnocentrism*. Ethnocentrism can bias one's view of another culture, so sociologists try to take the position of *cultural relativism*. However, many sociologists believe that there are some universal human values and that we can still make some moral judgments about other cultures while taking a cultural relativist perspective.

B. Subcultures and Countercultures

- Cultures may include subgroups, including *subcultures* and *countercultures*. Subcultures arise when a group both is the target of prejudice from the mainstream (providing the motive to create a subculture) and has social power (providing the ability to do so). Members of subcultures emphasize their differences from the dominant culture.
- Countercultures are based on both difference from and opposition to the dominant culture, so they require conformity from members. They may be seen as a threat to the dominant culture and policed or controlled as a result.

III. Elements of Culture

A. Material Culture

- *Material culture* includes what people make and what they make it with, things that both achieve our subsistence needs and also things that help us answer larger questions about the meaning of what we do.

B. Symbols

- We use *symbols* to communicate our ideas and feelings to other members of our culture. The symbols do not mean the same thing to people outside the culture, and there are often conflicts within a society about the meaning of certain symbols.

C. Language

- *Language* is essential to our ability to communicate with other people and to develop a sense of self. Other animals have some forms of communication, but it involves only the present. Human language engages past, present, and future, is used to transmit culture to the next generation, and shapes our perception of the world (the conclusion of the *Sapir-Whorf hypothesis*). The language we use can be political and can convey cultural ideas about certain groups (men and women, racial groups, etc.).

D. Ritual

- *Rituals* help cultures cohere and persist over time by expressing the group's unity and enabling each member to feel connected to the culture.

E. Norms

- *Norms* are our cultural standards for behavior. They vary considerably between cultures and may also vary within a culture. Norms change over time, often spurred by changes in technology, which create new social situations that call for new norms. Depending on its level of formality, a norm may be a *folkway* (usually called etiquette or manners; breaches rarely punished), a *more* (usually enforced, but still informally), or a *law* (norms the society has written down and organized ways to officially punish violators).

F. Values

- *Values* are the culture's ethical standards and are therefore the foundation of norms. Sometimes, we change our norms and expect that changes in values will follow. Our values are often fluid and contradictory, allowing us to apply them when convenient. There is often a gap between ideal culture (the values to which we aspire) and real culture (our actual behavior). We tend to judge others harshly when their behavior does not match their ideals, while being forgiving when we ourselves do not behave according to our values.
- Sociological research has enumerated 12 core American values: achievement and success, individualism, activity and work, efficiency and practicality, science and technology, progress, material comfort, humanitarianism, freedom, democracy, equality, and racism and group superiority. These values are internally inconsistent, and in many ways, we could also be said to have the opposite of each of these values as core American values. As new values emerge over time, they may conflict with existing values. They may either become core values, or be absorbed or discarded. As we continue to hold contradictory values, our values become things that we draw upon to justify our beliefs and actions rather than things that guide our behavior. The

presence of these contradictory values also creates deep polarization in our society, with different groups holding different sets of those values dear.

IV. Cultural Expressions

A. Universality and Localism

- Although cultures vary a great deal, there are also *cultural universals*, broad categories of social organization or behavior that exist in all societies. Each culture manifests its version of the cultural universal differently (e.g., all cultures have some form of family, but family structure in each culture is different). We experience culture both at the local level and at the broader, universal level of the larger groups to which we belong.

B. High Culture and Popular Culture

- Cultural expressions often come in the form of what people call either *high culture* or *popular culture*. Sociologists are concerned with understanding what cultural activities get placed into each category, who has the power to determine those classifications, and how people negotiate the two realms. In particular, sociologists examine how knowledge of high culture is a form of cultural capital that the dominant class uses to justify its dominance.

C. Forms of Popular Culture

- Popular culture is fluid and constantly changing and includes *fads* (in objects, activities, ideas, and personalities) and *fashions*.

D. The Politics of Popular Culture

- While cultural elites control high culture, popular culture usually comes from the margins, from those who have been excluded from a role in defining other forms of culture.

E. The Globalization of Popular Culture

- Fashion and other forms of popular culture in the U.S. are increasingly apparent in other countries. Our popular culture may be exported deliberately, which some critics consider a form of *cultural imperialism*, or may emerge from below without any deliberate efforts. In addition, trends may be transferred from other countries to the U.S.

F. Culture as a Tool Kit

- Culture is not something we do or don't have; rather, it's a set of behaviors, attitudes, and symbols that we actively use, drawing on different cultural elements in different circumstances.

V. Cultural Change: Cultures are constantly changing, and we often experience “culture wars” as groups clash over certain symbols and cultural changes. Not all parts of society change at the same rate or same time; for example, material culture often changes before nonmaterial culture does, creating a situation called *culture lag*, in which we may be uncomfortable, feel confused, or experience conflict with others as we establish new norms and values related to the new material objects. Cultures may also change through *cultural diffusion*. Sometimes, a technological change allows one group to impose its values on another, causing rapid cultural change.

VI. Culture in the 21st Century: Sociologists use the concept of culture to understand the context in which individual action takes place. Cultures are always defined both by cohesion and diversity.

Key Terms from Chapter Two

counterculture: subcultures that identify themselves through their difference from and opposition to the dominant culture (p. 41).

cultural capital: any “piece” of culture that a group can use as a symbolic resource to exchange with others (p. 54).

cultural diffusion: the spreading of new ideas through a society, independent of population movement (p. 58).

cultural diversity: the world's cultures are vastly different from each other (p. 39).

cultural imperialism: the deliberate imposition of one country's culture on another country (p. 57).

cultural relativism: the position that all cultures are equally valid in the experience of their own members (p. 40).

cultural universal: rituals, customs, and symbols that are evident in all societies (p. 52).

culture: the sets of values and ideals that we understand to define morality, good and evil, appropriate and inappropriate; defines larger structural forces and how we perceive them (p. 38).

culture lag: the gap between a society's technology and material culture and its social beliefs and institutions (p. 58).

culture shock: a feeling of disorientation we often experience when we encounter a different culture (p. 39).

ethnocentrism: a belief that one's culture is superior to others (p. 39).

fads: short-lived, highly popular, and widespread behaviors, styles, or modes of thought (p. 55).

fashion: a behavior, style, or idea that is more permanent than a fad (p. 55).

folkway: relatively weak and informal norms that are the result of patterns of action (p. 46).

language: an organized set of symbols by which we are able to think and communicate with others (p. 43).

law: norms that have been organized and written down, and the breaking of which involves disapproval not only of immediate community members but also the agents of the state (p. 47).

material culture: the things people make, and the things they use to make them (p. 38).

mores: norms that are stronger than folkways and are informally enforced (p. 47).

nonmaterial culture: the ideas and beliefs that people develop about their lives and their world (p. 39).

norm: the rules a culture develops that define how people should act and the consequences of failure to act in the specified ways (p. 45).

popular culture: the culture of the masses (the middle and working class), as opposed to "high culture" (p. 53).

ritual: process by which members of a culture engage in a routine behavior to express their sense of belonging to the culture (p. 44).

Sapir-Whorf hypothesis: concluded that language itself provides a cultural lens through which people perceive the world, as opposed to the common sense belief that the function of language is to express the world we already perceive (p. 43).

subculture: a group of people within a culture who share some distinguishing characteristic, belief, value, or attribute that sets them apart from the dominant culture (p. 40).

symbol: anything that carries additional meanings beyond itself to others who share in the culture (p. 42).

value: the ethical foundations of a culture (p. 47).

Key People from Chapter Two

Pierre Bourdieu: French sociologist who argued that different groups possess “cultural capital,” a resource that those in the dominant class can use to justify their dominance (p. 54).

Edward Sapir and Benjamin Whorf: anthropologists who developed the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, which describes the relationship between perception and language (p. 43-44).

Ann Swidler: sociologist who developed the concept of culture as a “tool kit” (p. 57).

William Graham Sumner: sociologist who coined the term “ethnocentrism” (p. 39-40).

Try It Exercise: Thinking about Culture in Everyday Life (does not appear in text)

Modified from an activity submitted by Jonathan Marx, Winthrop University.

OBJECTIVE: Understand the importance of culture in everyday life.

STEP 1: Plan

Your instructor will either ask you to think about something that represents your culture or subculture or you may be asked to bring a material artifact (food, clothing, music, photo, or other object) that would help someone understand your culture.

STEP 2: Share

Briefly share what first came to mind (or the actual object). Identify yourself by name and talk about the cultural/subcultural group(s) you represent.

STEP 3: Evaluate

As students in your class are presenting, make a note of each culture/subcultural group mentioned. Are you surprised by the diversity or lack of diversity in your class? Why or why not?

STEP 4: Discuss

After everyone has presented, your instructor may lead the class in further discussion of culture.

Instructor's Notes: This activity can be fun and interesting for many students. It is important to remind students to be considerate and not to bring in objects that some groups might find offensive (this could be another form of this activity, however as an instructor you would want to be careful about ground rules, etc). Depending on the size of the class, it may not be possible to do this as an in-class assignment. For larger classes and those with access to online discussion forums, this could be done as an online activity where students take a digital photo of the object and write a brief description and share with other students in a discussion forum. Other variations include:

1. Developing a collage of pictures of items that represent your culture and sharing in class. Ask them to dig a little deeper and share photos that represent both material cultural and non-material culture.
2. As a quick in-class activity, just have students think about an object and share the importance of the object with a partner in class. You can call upon some of the partner groups to share.

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (p. 45)

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2004

Do you favor or oppose making English the official language of the United States? Overall, slightly more than three-quarters of the U.S. population favors English as the official language of the United States. There are significant class differences in this, with those who identify as lower class being less likely than other groups to be in favor.

English as Official Language by Social Class %

	Lower Working		MiddleUpper		Row Total
Favor	70.2	75.8	79.8	78.4	77.5
Oppose	29.8	24.2	20.2	21.6	22.5

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. How can we explain the social class differences in response to this survey question?
2. How do you think the results might have differed had we looked at them by race, or by gender?

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (does not appear in text)**Pride in Being American**

Sociologists study not just demographic trends, but also attitudes, beliefs, and values, and how they relate to those trends. A simple question about pride in nationality can be used to infer much about a population and the state of a nation. National pride is usually viewed as a positive thing, as it's indicative of patriotism and happiness with one's life in a country and culture. But extreme patriotism can also lead to ethnocentrism, which has its own consequences. So, what do you think?

How proud are you of being an American?

- a. Very Proud
- b. Somewhat Proud
- c. Not Very Proud
- d. Not Proud at All
- e. I Am Not American

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2004

How proud are you of being an American? An overwhelmingly high proportion of respondents said they were very proud to be an American (89%). Less than three percent of respondents said they were not very proud or not proud at all to be American. Those who identified as working class were the least likely to say they were very proud to be American.

Pride in Being American by Social Class %

	Lower	Working	Middle	Upper	Row Total
Very Proud	85.3	76.9	79.7	85.1	79.0
Somewhat Proud	10.2	18.6	16.1	14.9	16.8
Not Very Proud	4.5	1.0	2.2	.0	1.8
Not Proud At All	.0	.3	.4	.0	.3
Not American	.0	3.1	1.5	.0	2.0

CRITICAL THINKING/ DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. While the class difference in responses was not that great, it is still interesting. Why do you think those who identify as lower class and those that identify as upper class were most likely to report being very proud to be American? Why do you think those who identified as middle class were least likely to report being very proud?
2. The number of Americans who are proud to be American is very high. Why do you think this is so? Do you think pride in country is as high in other countries? Why or why not? Give examples.

References: Davis, James A., Tom W. Smith, and Peter V. Marsden. General Social Surveys 1972-2004:[Cumulative file] [Computer file]. 2nd ICPSR version. Chicago, IL: National Opinion Research Center [producer], 2005. Storrs, CT: Roper Center for Public Opinion Research, University of Connecticut/ Ann Arbor, MI: Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research/ Berkeley, CA: Computer-assisted Survey Methods Program, University of California [distributors], 2005.

Go to this website to look further at the data. You can run your own statistics and crosstabs here: <http://sda.berkeley.edu/cgi-bin/hsda?harcsta+gss04>

Teaching Suggestions**Film**

- *A World of Differences*: This 30-minute film explores the range of ways culture affects us, from the food we eat, to the emotions we express, to our relationships with our families. The film presents the differences through clips of interviews with people who have experienced both American culture and another culture, and it will prompt laughter as well as lots of personal examples from students of similar experiences with cross-cultural encounters.

In-Class Activities

- *Cultural Exchange*: Invite several guest speakers who come from other cultures (either outside speakers, or members of the class) to share with the class about the core values, beliefs, and norms of their culture of origin and how it differs from American values. Encourage them to also share some of their experiences of culture shock or confusion as they became acclimated to American culture. Use these examples to illustrate concepts from the textbook.
- *Cultural Relativism and Human Rights*: The authors point out that although sociologists take a cultural relativist position, many still believe that it is acceptable to make some moral judgments about other societies. Share with the class a widely accepted list of universal human rights (e.g., from the United Nations or a major human rights organization) and discuss societies in which people do not have these rights. (Be sure to note the ones that some Americans do not have!) Discuss with the class whether these human rights are universal or whether they represent the imposition of Western ideals, and whether it is possible to both be a cultural relativist and still make these moral judgments.

Projects, Papers, and Homework Exercises

- *Exploring the Contradictions in American Values*: The authors discuss at length the fact that our core American values are mutually contradictory and that we often seem to hold both a certain value and its opposite as core values. To help your students explore this issue, choose some popular texts (e.g., TV shows, advice magazines) for students to examine using content analysis. Have individual students or groups take the lists of values on pages 00-00 and code several texts, finding all examples of the presence of these values in that text. Have the class bring together its findings and create a group summary of all the values you found and their relative frequencies. Discuss as a class what you conclude from this exercise. Are the authors correct that Americans subscribe to contradictory values? What are the possible consequences of this fact? Follow up on the exercise by lecturing on Swidler's concept of culture as a toolkit (see references, below, to her original and more recent work on this concept) as an illustration of how people deal with these contradictions in daily life.

For Further Research and Reading

References Cited in the Text

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Hunter, James Davison. *Culture Wars: The Struggle to Define America*. New York: Basic Books, 1992.

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Watson, James (ed.). *Golden Arches East: McDonalds in East Asia*, 2nd ed. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press, 2006.

Chapter Three: Society: Interactions, Groups, and Organizations

Chapter Summary

To understand human behavior, sociologists must understand society, which is the context for our actions and which is composed of small-scale interactions, large bureaucracies, and everything in-between. Our reality is socially constructed and sociologists study how we create our identities through our interactions with others. Our social structure is made up of the statuses and roles we inhabit, and of groups, which have predictable social dynamics. It is also made up of organizations, the largest type of group, which exhibit many of the same social dynamics and problems we see in smaller social groups.

Learning Objectives

- To understand the concept of society.
- To understand the concept of the social construction of reality and how major theories (looking-glass self, dramaturgy, etc.) relate to the concept.
- To understand and apply the concepts of status and role, as well as the different types of statuses.
- To be able to describe the major types of groups and organizations and the common group dynamics that shape them.
- To be able to discuss and apply the problems caused by bureaucracy and group dynamics.

Chapter Outline

I. Introduction: People feel a tension between the desire to “fit in” and the desire to stand out and be seen as a unique individual. Sociologists seek to understand the choices we make about when we want to fit in or stand out, how we go about achieving that status, what the criteria are for fitting in or standing out, and who gets to decide if you’ve achieved it.

II. Society: Putting Things in Context

- To understand human behavior, sociologists focus on contextualizing it. The most important context for our behavior is *society*. Society is made up of both large-scale structures and institutions and smaller-scale elements we can describe as structured social interactions.

- We “construct” a sense of self through our interaction with the world around us. Through our interactions with others, we actively create our identities. Sociologists use terms like socialization, roles, statuses, groups, networks, organizations, and institutions to describe the processes and structures through which we create our identities.
- All of these things (socialization, roles, etc.) combined constitute society, and they are held together by *social structure*, which organizes social life and provides a context for individual action. Social structure provides both connections that support and sustain us, and constrain and limit us.

III. The Social Construction of Reality: Social life consists of patterns of *social interaction* in which we are all performing to present ourselves as well as possible. But since everyone has different perceptions of reality, there is no one true way of interpreting things. The goal of social science, therefore, is not to find out what is “true” about the social world, but rather, to find out how people come to perceive something as true. The process sociologists study to understand this is called the social construction of reality. Through this process, we follow the conventions accepted by the group and usually do not challenge or even really think about them very much.

A. Cooley and the Looking-Glass Self

- Charles Horton Cooley created the concept of the *looking-glass self* to describe the process by which a person’s identity develops. We develop our self, according to this theory, in three stages: we imagine how we appear to others around us, we draw general conclusions based on the reactions of others, and based on our evaluations of others’ reactions, we develop our sense of personal identity. This process is always ongoing.
- George Herbert Mead argued that we create a self through interaction with others, and that the self has two parts, the “I” (the self as subject) and the “me” (the self as object). Mead’s theory will be discussed further in Chapter Five.

B. Goffman and the “Dramaturgical” Self

- Goffman went beyond Cooley’s looking-glass self concept to argue that we engage in a process of *impression management*, meaning that our behavior is shaped not only by others’ reactions to us, but also by our own active efforts to control how others view us. Goffman called his theory *dramaturgy* to reflect the fact that we change our behavior so easily and often that we are like actors playing characters on a stage. When we are attempting to give our best performance, we are engaging in *face work*, and when our attempt fails, we are said to “lose face.”

C. Nonverbal Communication

- Nonverbal communication (gestures, facial expressions, body language) is part of the way we construct social reality. Although some nonverbal communication is universal, most is culture specific and its meaning varies by time and context. The appropriate nonverbal communication to use in your culture in different situations is learned through socialization. Nonverbal communication can be used to maintain social cohesion and to express status position (e.g., the use of laughter).

D. Verbal Communication

- Rules of verbal communication must also be learned, as basic verbal exchanges carry subtle meanings that we must understand and follow in order for social interaction to continue working smoothly. Harold Garfinkel's tradition of *ethnomethodology* focuses on uncovering these hidden conventions in verbal communication.

E. Patterns of Social Interaction

- There are five basic patterns of social interaction which link individuals in groups:
 1. Exchange (following the norm of reciprocity, people, groups, organizations, or nations maintain social interactions by exchanging material or symbolic items).
 2. Cooperation (working together to achieve larger goals).
 3. Competition (competing with other individuals or groups to gain scarce resources or rewards).
 4. Conflict (more extreme version of competition, in which combatants develop hatred for each other and may resort to violence or breaking other social norms to achieve their goal; also results in positive effects like closer bonding among people on each side of the conflict, and sometimes positive social change).
 5. Coercion (when *superordinate* individuals or groups use their power to force the *subordinate* individuals or groups to act in certain ways; this power may be the threat of violence or may be milder punishments like social pressure).

IV. Elements of Social Structure: We all take on many roles in our daily lives. Once we are accustomed to a role, we can be creative with how to enact it. The emphasis or interpretation we give to a role is called our *role performance*. Sociologists use the terms status and role to describe the elementary forms of interaction in society.

A. Status

- For a sociologist, *status* is a social identity recognized as meaningful by the group or society. It carries with it certain expectations, rights, and responsibilities. Some statuses are things that are fixed at birth, while others are things we enter and exit. Statuses change from culture to culture and over time. Some statuses are identical to roles, while others are more complex and involve a set of interlocking and perhaps contradictory roles. There are two kinds of statuses:
 1. *Ascribed status* (received involuntarily) is often used to confer privilege and power. Certain ascribed statuses are presented as naturally superior and others as naturally inferior. Often, the naturalness is presented so well that the people with the inferior statuses believe in the hierarchy, too. We cannot change our ascribed statuses, but we can try to change the perception of the characteristics associated with them.
 2. *Achieved status* (attained through talent, ability, or effort) is often dependent in some way on your ascribed statuses (for example, certain achieved statuses are more likely for particular age groups, and our ascribed statuses may make it easier or more difficult to attain certain achieved statuses). We can change our achieved statuses, and often do. In traditional societies, most statuses are ascribed, but in modern societies, more and more of our statuses are achieved and changeable.
- When an ascribed or achieved status is so important that it overshadows all our other statuses, dominating our lives and controlling our position in society, sociologists call it a *master status*. Class, race, gender, sexual orientation, and illness or disability can often become master statuses.

B. Roles

- We experience our *roles* as a negotiation between role expectations and role performance. Our performance of our roles is constantly being evaluated and when we are criticized or punished for our performance, or when we begin to dislike the expectations of a role, we may try to modify the expectations, convince others that our performance is good, or reject the role entirely.
- We experience *role strain* when the same role has demands and expectations that contradict each other, so that we cannot possibly meet them all at once. This causes us to feel doubt and insecurity and may lead us to abandon the role. Or, we may compartmentalize, choosing which aspect of the role to enact in a given situation and sometimes not even noticing the contradiction.

- We experience *role conflict* when we try to play different roles with extremely different or contradictory rules at the same time. This is a common problem because we all hold so many roles.
- When we leave a role (*role exit*) central to our identity, whether voluntarily or not, we go through a process of adjustment involving four stages (doubt, search for alternatives, departure, and taking on a new role). We can feel sad, lost, and confused during this process.

V. Groups: Apart from individuals, the smallest unit of society is a *group*. The smallest group is a *dyad*. Groups can be small or large, formal or informal. Sometimes when people come together, they are a *crowd* rather than a group. Groups differ from crowds in their level of *group cohesion*. In groups with high cohesion, members are more likely to follow the rules and less likely to drop out or join another group. Group cohesion can be increased by making the group more important to members (usually by having group members spend time together and create emotional connections) and by having a common enemy.

A. Groups and Identity

- We all belong to many groups. Some of these group memberships may be central to our identity, while others may not. If other people define us by group memberships we do not feel are important to our identities, we will experience conflict. In addition, due to the hierarchical nature of identities, we are often most aware of those group identities to which we belong that mark us as different from others.

B. Types of Groups

- There are different types of groups based on group composition, permanence, fluidity of boundaries, and membership criteria. You are born into some groups, are born into other groups that require your continued participation to maintain membership, and join other groups purely by choice. Groups can also be categorized in the following ways:
 1. *Primary groups* are small groups that come together for expressive reasons (emotional support, etc.). *Secondary groups* are small groups that come together for instrumental reasons (to work together toward common goals). Often a group has some elements of both.
 2. *In-groups* are groups to which you belong and feel positively toward. *Out-groups* are groups to which you do not belong and do not feel positively toward. In-groups may work hard to define their boundaries and develop a sense of in-groupness for members. When in- and out-group categories are based on race, nationality, and the like, violence can result as in-groups try to control or eliminate out-groups. Our perceptions of others are affected by our membership in certain in-groups. In the U.S., we tend to see individual differences between members of our in-group (*in-group heterogeneity*) while

seeing all members of the out-group as the same (*out-group homogeneity*). This phenomenon does not occur in all cultures.

3. *Reference groups* are groups whose perceptions we orient our actions around, because we value that group so highly. The reference group may or may not be a group we actually belong to; instead, it could be one to which we aspire to belong. It may also be a group that we feel especially negative towards and therefore seek to ensure that our behavior would *not* be acceptable to that group.
4. Cliques are groups organized around inclusion and exclusion and are ranked hierarchically. There may be several cliques, allowing most people a group with which to fit in, or there may be only one, from which exclusion is painful.

C. Group Dynamics: There are predictable dynamics in group behavior:

- Large groups, in which people cannot observe all of your actions, allow more diversity than small groups.
- Every group has a *leader* (whether selected formally or not) and a small number of *hardcore members* who have a great deal of power to make policy decisions. Leaders and hardcore members spend a great deal of time on the group and consider the group an important part of their identity, so they have a vested interest in promoting the group's values and norms and are more likely than ordinary members of the group to punish deviance from group norms.
- The groups we belong to hold significant influence over our norms, values, and expectations, and we generally value conformity to the group, whether it is formally required by group norms or we choose to conform to the group. This tendency to preserve group harmony rather than disrupting the group with disagreement can lead to *groupthink*.
- Large groups experience the phenomenon of *diffusion of responsibility*, leading many members of the group to avoid taking responsibility for their actions. It may also lead to the problem of bystanders (people who witness something harmful and do nothing to intervene). Bystanders may fail to intervene because they feel they are no more responsible than anyone else present, or because they are afraid of being harmed if they intervene. The more bystanders present in a situation, the less likely any one bystander is to intervene.
- We often have *stereotypes* about groups, whether from our own experiences or from media or other social influences. We may ignore behaviors that don't fit our stereotypes. Stereotypes are a foundation of prejudice.

VI. Social Networks: *Networks* are webs of connections to other people. They are denser than other groups (with more connections to other people), but also looser (people more removed from you have little influence on you).

A. Networks and Social Experience

- Certain social networks are formed from participation in other social groups and can have a lasting impact on the opportunities of their members.
- Social networks provide support during hard times, but membership in a network often relies on your ability to give something in return, so long-term need may mean that you lose your place in your network and become isolated.
- Your network includes strong ties (connections to people you actually know) and weak ties (connections to people you know of, or who know of you, but you do not actually know personally). Both sets of ties affect key aspects of your life (e.g., job opportunities). Sociological research shows that weak ties may have an even greater impact than strong ties, especially in our ability to learn new information.

B. Networks and Globalization

- Technology allows us to create networks not bound by geography, connecting with people anywhere in the world who share our interests. At the same time, sociological research shows that our networks are shrinking. Young people may be much less isolated than adults today due to their use of the Internet to create very rich social networks.

VII. Organizations: *Organizations* are large, more formal secondary groups designed to accomplish a specific task in an efficient manner. We usually belong to multiple organizations, which tend to last over time and are independent of the individuals who compose them. They have formal and informal organizational “culture” and tend to maintain their basic structure over a long time to achieve their goals.

A. Types of Organizations

- There are three main types of organizations. There is sometimes overlap between the types.
1. People join *normative organizations* to pursue an interest or gain some form of satisfaction. They are voluntary organizations members often have to pay to join and from which members receive no monetary compensation for their contributions. These organizations are often created to try to produce social change. People usually remain members of normative organizations only as long as they feel the organization is serving their interests, since the group has

no formal claim on their time or efforts. These groups may, therefore, dissolve when their initial goal is met.

2. *Coercive organizations* are organizations people are forced to join. They generally have formal rules and severe sanctions for people seeking to leave, as well as elaborate informal cultures members create to make their experience more palatable. Some coercive institutions are *total institutions* which completely formally control every aspect of daily life (although individuals still find ways to maintain some control of the situation).
3. People join *utilitarian organizations* for a specific instrumental purpose, a tangible material reward, and we maintain our participation while the reward continues to be present.

B. Are We a Nation of Joiners?

- Americans were once known as a nation of joiners, being highly involved in a variety of small- and large-scale organizations. Recent research, however, indicates that Americans now belong to far fewer organizations, and the decline has been particularly significant in membership in normative organizations.

C. Organizations: Race and Gender and Inequality?

- Although we think of organizations as neutral and guided by rules everyone must follow, the rules themselves may favor certain groups over others, leading to race and gender inequality.

D. Bureaucracy: Organization and Power

- A *bureaucracy* is a formal organization characterized by a division of labor, a hierarchy of authority, formal rules governing behavior, a logic of rationality, and an impersonality of criteria. From this perspective, it is a smoothly functioning machine. At the same time, however, it is a form of domination that keeps those at the top on top and encourages those at the bottom to believe in the legitimacy of the hierarchy.
- As an ideal type, a bureaucracy has a division of labor, a hierarchy of authority, rules and regulations that govern individual conduct, impersonality regarding criteria, career ladders defining paths for advancement, and efficiency made possible by all of these features.

E. Problems with Bureaucracy

- Bureaucracies exhibit the problems of all groups but also exaggerate those problems, leading bureaucracies to experience problems of overspecialization, rigidity and inertia, ritualism, suppression of dissent, the bureaucratic “Catch-22” (in which the bureaucracy creates more rules, and the rules actually reduce efficiency rather than improving it), and creation of the *bureaucratic personality* (in which people come to emphasize following the rules rather than to getting the job done).
- Working in a bureaucracy reduces people’s sense of individual accountability, leading people to carry out their assigned tasks and procedures without actually thinking about them and their consequences.
- Bureaucracies are undemocratic, since people who hold positions of power in them often stay in those positions for a very long period of time and because the people below them have no ability to remove them. Further, rules apply to those at the bottom, while the behavior of those at the top is often governed by informality and personal relationships. Rules can also be used to cover up the ways that informal networks give certain people or groups special advantages.
- Weber points to the many problems with bureaucracies to conclude that the very thing that we created to get things done with efficiency and fairness has become an “iron cage” that limits and traps us.

F. Globalization and Organizations

- The daily lives of people around the world increasingly involve interaction with global bureaucracies. Even the people who oppose globalization use the tools of these global bureaucracies to engage in their struggle.

VIII. Groups ‘R’ Us: Groups and Interactions in the 21st Century: The key terms of the last two chapters (culture, society, roles, etc.) help sociologists understand how our society is at once chaotic and quite orderly.

Key Terms from Chapter Three

achieved status: a status we attain through talent, ability, effort, or other unique personal characteristics (p. 71).

ascribed status: a status that we receive involuntarily, without regard to our unique talents, skills, or accomplishments (p. 71).

bureaucracy: a formal organization characterized by a division of labor, a hierarchy of authority, formal rules governing behavior, a logic of rationality, and an impersonality of criteria (p. 87).

bureaucratic personality: term used to describe the personality of people who become more committed to following the correct procedures than they are to getting the job done (p. 89).

coercive organizations: organizations in which membership is not voluntary (p. 84).

crowd: an aggregate of individuals who happen to be together but experience themselves as essentially independent (p. 74).

dramaturgy: Erving Goffman's theory of social life, based around his concept of impression management (p. 67).

dyad: a group of two (p. 74).

ethnomethodology: sociological tradition in which the researcher tries to expose the common unstated assumptions that enable conversational shortcuts to work (p. 69).

face work: concept from Goffman's dramaturgy theory, it is our attempt to give the best possible performance in our social interactions (p. 68).

group: any assortment of people who share (or believe they share) the same norms, values, and expectations (p. 74).

group cohesion: the degree to which the individual members of a group identify with each other and the group (p. 74).

groupthink: the process by which group members try to preserve harmony and unity in spite of their individual judgments (p. 80)

hardcore members: members of a group who have a great deal of power to make policy decisions (p. 78).

impression management: when people actively try to control how others perceive them by changing their behavior to correspond to an ideal of what the others will find most appealing (p. 67).

in-group: a group a person feels positively toward and to which the person belongs (p. 76).

in-group heterogeneity: concept describing the fact that we are keenly aware of the subtle differences among members of our in-groups (p. 77).

leader: someone in charge of a group (p. 78).

looking-glass self: Charles Horton Cooley's concept that argues that identity is formed through social interaction (p. 66).

master status: when an ascribed or achieved status is presumed so important that it overshadows all of the other statuses, dominating our lives and controlling our position in society (p. 72).

network: a type of group that is both looser and denser than a formal group (p. 81).

normative organizations: organization people join to pursue some interest or obtain some sort of satisfaction (p. 84).

organizations: large secondary group designed to accomplish specific tasks in an efficient manner (p. 84).

out-group: a group to which a person does not belong and does not feel positively toward (p. 76).

out-group homogeneity: concept describing our tendency to view all members of our out-groups as the same (p. 77).

primary groups: groups that come together for expressive reasons (to provide emotional support, love, companionship, and security) (p. 75).

reference group: a group toward which we are so strongly committed, or which commands so much prestige, that we orient our actions around what we believe that group's perceptions would be (p. 77).

role: sets of behaviors that are expected of a person who occupies a certain status (p. 72).

role conflict: occurs when we try to play different roles with extremely different or contradictory rules at the same time (p. 73).

role exit: the process of adjustment that takes place when we move out of a role that is central to our identity (p. 73).

role performance: the particular emphasis or interpretation we give a role, our "style" (p. 70).

role strain: occurs when the same role has demands and expectations that contradict each other, so we cannot possibly meet them all at once (p. 73).

secondary group: group that comes together for instrumental reasons (to meet a common goal) (p. 76).

social interaction: behaviors that are oriented toward other people (p. 66).

social structure: a complex framework, or structure, composed of both patterned social interactions and institutions that together both organize social life and provide the context for individual action (p. 66).

society: an organized collection of individuals and institutions, bounded by space in a coherent territory, subject to the same political authority, and organized through a shared set of cultural expectations and values (p. 64).

status: any social identity recognized as meaningful by the group or society, which carries with it certain expectations, rights, and responsibilities (p. 71).

stereotype: assumption about what people are like or how they will behave based on their membership in a group (p. 80).

subordinate: individuals or groups with less social power (p. 70).

superordinate: individuals or groups with social power (p. 70).

total institution: a coercive organization that completely formally circumscribes a person's everyday life (p. 85).

utilitarian organization: organizations to which people belong for a specific, instrumental purpose, a tangible material reward (p. 85)

Key People from Chapter Three

Thomas Berger and Peter Luckmann: sociologists known for their work on the “social construction of reality” (p. 66).

Charles Horton Cooley: sociologist who developed the concept of the “looking-glass self” (p. 66-67).

Harold Garfinkel: developed the sociological tradition called ethnomethodology, in which the researcher tries to expose the common unstated assumptions that enable conversational shortcuts to work (p. 69).

Erving Goffman: sociologist who went beyond the concept of the looking-glass self to describe how our selves change through our engagement in what he called “impression management” (p. 67-68).

George Herbert Mead: sociologist who argued that our self arises through taking on the role of others (p. 67).

Max Weber: classical sociologist known for his theory about bureaucracy as an “iron cage” (p. 87-88).

Try It Exercise: Exploring Master Status (does not appear in text)

Adapted from submission by Casey J. Cornelius, Delta College.

OBJECTIVE: Develop an understanding of the concept of master status by exploring your awareness of self-identification and perception of others.

STEP 1: Develop a personal advertisement.

Write a three- to four-line personal advertisement. Personal advertisements are usually written to introduce yourself to others who are looking for a potential mate who has similar desired characteristics. Keep in mind that you will be sharing your personal advertisement with others in class.

STEP 2: Share in class.

Your instructor may inform you when it is time to discuss in class, and each student may be asked to share. As you're listening to other students, think about the first two to three words they use to describe themselves. You may want to write them down as you are listening. Do you notice any patterns? How do most of the students in the class describe themselves? What roles do age, marital status, race, gender, religion, sexual orientation, and occupation play in how we think about ourselves? What does all of this have to do with the concept of master status? After everyone has shared his or her personal advertisement, your instructor will lead the class in further discussions of these issues.

STEP 3: Write a reflection paper.

After class discussion, your instructor may assign a one- to two-page reflection paper about this learning activity. You may be asked to explore further the idea of master status and think about how it affects your interactions with others. Please note that there are several different variations of this project, and your instructor will give you further directions should they be needed.

Instructor's Notes: This is one of those activities that you as an instructor may want to demonstrate. Students will likely ask you to take part in the personal ad element of the activity, so be prepared to share your ad. Not only does it give them a model for the activity, but it allows them to let their guard down a bit. Here are a couple variations of this activity:

1. Collect personal advertisements and/or obituaries from newspapers and ask them to evaluate (This particular variation would save some time in class and may be more comfortable for some students). Some students may be uncomfortable sharing personal information with others in class.
2. Turn this into an online activity and have students choose at random an online profile of someone on Facebook or MySpace. You could also ask students (if they have them) to share their own profiles. This would work mostly with traditionally aged students.

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (p. 76)

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2004

Are there any activities that you do with the same group of people on a regular basis even if the group doesn't have a name such as a bridge group, exercise group, or a group that meets to discuss individual or community problems? Almost three-quarters of respondents reported not being part of a regular informal group. White respondents (29.3%) were more likely than black respondents (19.1%) to be part of such a group. Those who were of another racial classification were least likely to report being part of a group (14.1%). There was no difference in group membership by gender.

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Were you surprised that so few respondents reported being members of informal groups? Do you think these numbers reflect reality? Why do you think so few people belong to groups? Why do you think black respondents were less likely to report belonging to an informal group than were white respondents?
2. What other benefits are there to group membership? Think about what kinds of groups you belong to, and how you benefit from them.

References: Davis, James A., Tom W. Smith, and Peter V. Marsden. General Social Surveys 1972-2004:[Cumulative file] [Computer file]. 2nd ICPSR version. Chicago, IL: National Opinion Research Center [producer], 2005. Storrs, CT: Roper Center for Public Opinion Research, University of Connecticut/ Ann Arbor, MI: Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research/ Berkeley, CA: Computer-assisted Survey Methods Program, University of California [distributors], 2005.

Go to this website to look further at the data. You can run your own statistics and crosstabs here: <http://sda.berkeley.edu/cgi-bin/hsda?harcsda+gss04>

Teaching Suggestions

Film

- *Quiet Rage: The Stanford Prison Experiment*: This film of the classic Stanford Prison Experiment provides an engaging tool for discussing roles, the dramaturgical perspective, and how identities are shaped by context and social interaction.
- *The Eye of the Storm*: In the text (p. 80), the authors discuss Jane Elliot's famous creation of in-groups and out-groups based on eye color among her third-grade students. This film shows the experiment and is an excellent illustration of in-group/out-group dynamics, as well as the concept of the self-fulfilling prophecy.

- *Groupthink*: This film examines the phenomenon of groupthink in depth, applying it step by step to the decision to launch the Challenger space shuttle (which is the text's example of the concept of groupthink as well; see page 80). This thorough application should help students fully understand this concept and its real-world importance. The film can be followed by asking students to come up with other examples, such as examples from their peer groups or work experiences, where they believe they observed groupthink happening. Before starting the film, be sure that students know the basic facts about the Challenger, as the film does not fully explain what happened and students who don't know in advance about the disaster may not understand the significance of the film.

In-Class Activities

- *An Example of Impression Management*: To help students understand impression management more concretely, read aloud in class some excerpts from Albas and Albas's article "Aces and Bombers" (see references), which present research on how students impression manage after receiving an exam back in class. Lead a discussion about whether this data resonates with students' experiences and use it to reiterate how impression management works and the importance of its functions in social interaction.
- *Group Processes Exercise*: Put students in small groups and ask them to engage in a team-building exercise that involves making decisions. (Many such exercises, such as building a house with only the index cards and tape provided, can be found in books and on websites about management and leadership training). After the exercise, discuss how each group made its decisions. Connect this process to the phenomena discussed in the textbook (groupthink, conformity, etc.).

Projects, Papers, and Homework Exercises

- *McDonaldization*: Assign students an excerpt from George Ritzer's book *The McDonaldization of Society* (see references), a modern version of Weber's theory of bureaucracy. Ask them to write a short paper analyzing some aspect of their lives (their job, a trip to the grocery store, etc.) using Ritzer's four elements of McDonaldization. In class, discuss what they concluded about how McDonaldized their lives are and whether we should be concerned if our society is indeed McDonaldizing.
- *The Asch Experiment*: Have groups of students replicate the Asch experiment (discussed on page 00 of the text) to examine whether test subjects today will show the same levels of conformity as subjects did in the 1950s. You can make the assignment more complex by assigning different groups different demographic categories to include in their tests in order to create a balanced sample when the whole class combines its results. You could also have students write up their findings in journal article format to help them deepen their understanding of sociological research and how it is reported.

- *Garfinkeling*: In class, discuss ethnomethodology and share some examples of Garfinkel's (and others') work in this tradition. Then, ask students to try Garfinkeling themselves. They should choose one test to conduct and try it with multiple people and in multiple settings. Have students write up their results in a short paper and then share them with the class. Use the students' results to help them understand how our underlying norms and social and cultural understandings keep our social interactions, and therefore society itself, running smoothly.

For Further Research and Reading

References Cited in the Text

Berger, Peter L., and Thomas Luckmann. *The Social Construction of Reality: A Treatise in the Sociology of Knowledge*. New York: Anchor Books, 1966.

Kanter, Rosebeth M. *Men and Women of the Corporation*. New York: Basic Books, 1977.

Putnam, Robert D. *Bowling Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community*. New York: Simon & Schuster, 2001.

Additional Sources

Albas, Daniel and Cheryl Albas. "Aces and Bombers." *Symbolic Interaction* 11(2): 289-302, 1988.

Ritzer, George. *The McDonaldization of Society*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Pine Forge Press, 1996.

Vaughan, Diane. *The Challenger Launch Decision: Risky Technology, Culture, and Deviance at NASA*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1997.

Chapter Four: How Do We Know What We Know? The Methods of the Sociologist

Chapter Summary

As a social science, sociology uses the scientific method and a wide range of research methodologies to study human behavior. Sociologists choose a research method for a given project based on the research questions they ask. Common sociological research methods include experiments, field studies, interviews, surveys, content analysis, and secondary analysis of existing data. Sociologists aim for predictability and establishing causality through their studies, but both are difficult to establish due to the complexity of human behavior. There are also major ethical issues sociologists must keep in mind while doing research, including the need to maintain professional ethics and the requirement to avoid any harm to study participants.

Learning Objectives

- To understand how research in the social sciences differs from research in the natural sciences.
- To understand the value of all research methods used in sociology and how research questions drive choice of method.
- To be able to explain and give examples of the use of each major research method.
- To be able to explain the steps sociologists go through in defining and conducting a research project.
- To be able to explain the goals of predictability and causality in sociological research.
- To be able to discuss and identify ethical issues in sociological research.

Chapter Outline

I. Introduction: Our common sense beliefs often turn out to be wrong once we look at carefully constructed sociological research. Sociological research allows us to look at the complexity of social issues.

II. Why Sociological Methods Matter: As a social science, sociology uses methods from the natural sciences to study social phenomena. Because people, unlike the subjects of natural sciences, have *subjectivity*, sociologists use a wide range of methods to study their complex subject matter. Sociologists also study a wide range of issues and topics and the methods they choose are based on the topic under study. The choice of method and type of data is crucial, because the methods we use and questions we ask can lead us toward or away from certain answers to the issues under study.

A. Sociology and the Scientific Method

- Sociologists follow the rules of the scientific method, including the important requirement to rely on *data*. Some sociological research methods use *deductive reasoning* (like the methods of the natural sciences, logically proceeding from one demonstrable fact to another to deduce results, and removed from the feelings of the researcher or the research subjects), while others use *inductive reasoning* (studying a few cases to draw conclusions about the larger group, using our own human capacity to put ourselves in another's shoes—what Weber called *verstehen*—to understand the feelings and perspectives of the research subjects). All of the methods are valuable in different situations, depending on what we want to know about the issue being researched.

B. The Qualitative/Quantitative Divide

- We often think of the divide between social scientific methods as the divide between quantitative methods and qualitative methods, which are seen as less scientific. Actually, both types of methods are useful for learning about human behavior, and both can be affected by the personal biases of the researchers.

III. Doing Sociological Research: A sociological research project follows eight basic steps: choosing an issue, defining the problem, reviewing the literature, developing a *hypothesis* involving *independent and dependent variables*, designing a research project, collecting data, analyzing the data, and reporting the findings.

IV. Types of Sociological Research Methods: There are two basic types of sociological research, each with several sub-types: (1) observation of behavior in a natural or controlled setting, and (2) analysis of accumulated data, either from surveys or from data collected by others. Sociological studies examine independent and dependent variables as well as *extraneous and confounding variables*. Sociologists usually do not conduct experiments, which require a very specific procedure, including changing the independent variable, that is difficult to accomplish for many sociological topics. Instead, sociologists generally use observation, interviews, surveys, or content analysis to gather data. Sociological research also involves a *literature review*.

A. Observational Methods

- Experiments, field studies, and interview studies are all observational methods used by sociologists to directly observe the behavior being studied in order to test hypotheses against evidence. Each of these methods involves interaction with the people being studied and generally produces data that focuses on the nuances in the patterns of human behavior. (This focus on the specific can be balanced by a use of quantitative methods to examine the larger scale.)

- Experiments involve manipulation of the independent variable and observation of an *experimental group* and a *control group* to assess whether the change in the independent variable had an effect. An effective experiment requires that the two groups be as similar as possible on all other characteristics besides the independent variable. Sociologists today do fewer experiments than they did in the past due to limitations imposed through changes in laws regarding the use of human subjects in research.
- Sociologists may use field studies (including *detached observation*, *participant observation*, and *ethnography*) to study behavior that is not readily accessible in a controlled environment. Increasingly, sociologists use the ethnographic methods of anthropologists in these studies. Field studies are challenging to carry out because they require excellent observational skills and the ability to use the sociological perspective to understand the point of view of the people being observed.
- Interview studies use a small sample (usually a *purposive sample*) of respondents and gather information on their thoughts and feelings about the issue under study through in-depth one-on-one interaction. Because the sample is not a probability sample, researchers cannot generalize from the findings of an interview study, but the results help sociologists identify common themes and trends in a group's attitudes or behaviors.

B. Analysis of Quantitative Data

- Quantitative data analysis may involve the use of surveys or the analysis of secondary data.
- Surveys are the research method sociologists most often use to gather data about attitudes and behaviors.
- Survey questions must be carefully constructed so that they will yield as much information as possible. We often use a *Likert scale*, arranging possible answers from lowest to highest, to yield more information.
- Sociologists using surveys must also determine who to survey. Since we cannot give the survey to everyone, sociologists use a *sample* of the population. The sample chosen may be a *random sample*, a *stratified sample*, or a *cluster sample*.
- The wording of a survey question, the possible answers, and the location of the question on the survey can all affect the results, so surveys and survey questions must be designed very carefully.

- It is expensive and time-consuming to conduct a survey from scratch, so many sociologists do studies involving secondary analysis of existing data, reanalyzing data that have already been collected.

C. Content Analysis

- Content analysis usually involves intensive reading of texts (books, magazines, television shows, etc.), coding for particular content and then using that information to conduct further qualitative or quantitative analysis.

D. Making the Right Comparisons

- In order to draw appropriate conclusions, it is essential that researchers design their studies so that they are comparing the right groups—groups that are, in fact, comparable.

V. Social Science and the Problem of “Truth”: Although there is no single “truth” we can know, social scientists approach truth through a focus on the goal of *predictability* (developing the ability to predict the outcome) and *causality* (identifying necessary and sufficient causes for certain effects).

A. Predictability and Probability

- We have to include many different variables in our analyses to predict behavior and attitudes, and even then, we will never be able to predict with full accuracy. This is partly true because human behavior is extremely complex, and also partly true because people change their behavior when they know they are being observed.

B. Causality

- Although the goal of some sociological research is to determine which variable causes the other, it is sometimes hard to sort out which is the cause and which is the effect. In analyzing a possible cause, we have to examine several questions, including whether the effect comes after the cause in time, whether there is a high correlation between the two variables, whether there are extraneous variables that might have contaminated the data, and whether there might be an observer effect contaminating the data. Sociologists looking for causal relationships must also be aware of avoiding logical fallacies such as the compositional fallacy.

VI. Issues in Conducting Research: Studies of human behavior are always controversial, and many people believe that anything can be proven with statistics. However, some studies are more valid than others, and the peer review process guiding the publication of sociological research in academic journals is one way of ensuring the quality of research. It does so by requiring that published research is evaluated by people who are qualified to evaluate it and that the journal editor's biases do not shape what research is published. There are three additional issues researchers much keep in mind when conducting their studies:

A. Remain Objective and Avoid Bias

- Although your political beliefs may guide your research (for example, your choice of topic to study), you must construct your research project so that your research itself is objective and you find accurate information rather than just confirming what you wanted to find.

B. Avoid Overstating Results

- It can be tempting to overstate one's research results, but researchers must be cautious to generalize only so far as their research methods allow and to avoid suggesting causation when they have only found a correlation.

C. Maintain Professional Ethics

- Professional ethics require that research be free from outside influence that might bias the study or call its results into question and that it must not hurt the research subjects participating in the study.

D. The Institutional Review Board

- The Institutional Review Board ensures the safety of participants in social scientific studies by requiring that before a researcher begins a study, he or she can guarantee that interaction with the research subjects will be guided by informed consent, continuous consent, anonymity, freedom from deception, freedom from harm, and special treatment for protected groups like children. This is sometimes complicated to put into practice in real research situations, and ethical issues in research continue to arise.

VII. Social Science in the 21st Century: Emergent Methodologies: New technologies can create the possibility of new types of research methods, such as field experiments, in which sociologists conduct an experiment in a field setting rather than in a lab. New technologies can also help us refine and improve existing methodologies, such as finding better ways to gather and analyze survey data, or giving us new ways to easily find a group of people with a particular interest or belief.

Key Terms from Chapter Four

causality: the relationship of some variable to the effects it produces (p. 116).

cluster sample: a subset of the population to be studied in which the researcher chooses a sample of “clusters” (e.g., neighborhoods) and then surveys every person in the selected clusters (p. 110).

confounding variables: variables that may be affecting the results of the study but which haven’t been adequately accounted for (p. 103).

content analysis: an intensive reading of a random sample of certain “texts,” to be coded and then quantitatively analyzed (p. 113)

control group: the group in the experiment that will not experience the manipulation of the variable (p. 104).

correlation: some relationship between two phenomena, but not necessarily that one causes the other (p. 119).

data: formal and systematic information, organized and coherent (p. 98).

deductive reasoning: an approach researchers use when logically proceeding from one demonstrable fact to the next and deducing results (p. 98).

dependent variable: what gets measured in an experiment. It’s the change to the dependent variable that constitutes the results (p. 101).

detached observation: a perspective that constrains the researcher from becoming in any way involved in the event he or she is observing (p. 106).

ethnography: a field research method used most often by anthropologists when they study other cultures. Involves trying to understand the world from the point of view of the people whose lives are being studied (p. 107).

experiment: a controlled form of observation in which one manipulates independent variables to observe their effects on a dependent variable (p. 104).

experimental group: the group that will have the change introduced to see what happens (p. 104).

extraneous variables: variables that may influence the outcome of an experiment but are not actually of interest to the researcher (p. 103).

generalizability: the extent to which the results of a study can be applied to other circumstances (p. 113).

hypothesis: predicts a relationship between two variables, independent and dependent (p. 101).

independent variable: the event or item in your experiment that you will manipulate to see if that difference has an impact (p. 101).

inductive reasoning: an approach researchers use when it is necessary to study the feelings of the research subjects. Involves reasoning from the specific to the general (p. 98).

interviews: the most typical type of qualitative study, involving interviews with a small sample of respondents (p. 104).

Likert scale: a scale for grading survey responses which arranges possible responses from lowest to highest (p. 109).

literature review: a careful examination of all available research already done on a topic, or at least a systematic sample of that research, through a specific critical and theoretical lens (p. 104).

participant observation: research method that requires that the researcher both participate and observe, often including concealing their identity from the people being studied (p. 106).

predictability: the ability to generate testable (p. 116).

purposive sample: a sample in which respondents are not selected randomly and are not representative of the larger population but selected purposively—that is, each subject is selected precisely because he or she possesses certain characteristics that are of interest to the researcher (p. 108).

qualitative methods: methods that rely on inductive and inferential reasoning to understand the texture of social life, the actual felt experience of social interaction (p. 100).

quantitative methods: the use of powerful statistical tools to help understand patterns in which the behaviors, attitudes, or traits under study can be translated into numerical values. Typically rely on deductive reasoning (p. 99).

random sample: a subset of the population to be studied chosen by an abstract and arbitrary method (p. 109).

sample: a subset of the population to be studied (p. 109).

secondary analysis: reanalyzing data that has already been collected (p. 112).

stratified sample: a subset of the population to be studied in which the researcher divides people into different groups before constructing the sample to make sure that he or she gets an adequate number of members of each of the groups (p. 110).

subjectivity: a complex that people possess of individual perceptions, motivations, ideas, and really messy things like emotions (p. 96).

survey: the most common method sociologists use to collect information about attitudes and behaviors (p. 109).

verstehen: a method that uses “intersubjective understanding,” or using your own abilities to see the world from another point of view (p. 98).

Key People from Chapter Four

Stanley Milgram: social psychologist who conducted the infamous experiment to examine the limits of people’s obedience to authority (p. 104-105).

Try It Exercise: Investigating Interviews and Surveys (does not appear in text)

Adapted from submission by Meredith Greif, Cleveland State University

OBJECTIVE: Investigate how to develop interview questions and explore how research connects to sociological content.

STEP 1: Plan

Identify a research question that would require you to interview college students. There are numerous topics that would work for this project, but when in doubt be sure to check with your instructor about your research question. After you have identified your topic of interest, take a moment to identify your dependent variable. After you have identified your dependent variable, think about how you might measure it and develop six questions that you would ask in an interview to address your research question. Your instructor may have an example to help you with this process. Write out your research question, dependent variable, and interview questions.

STEP 2: Collect Data

The next step is to find a student in your sociology class to interview. It is best to partner with another student and to share interviews. As you are interviewing your partner student, not only pay attention to the responses, but also think about how well your interview questions allowed you to really explore your research question. Make notes about what questions were not understood by your interviewee or what questions did not really result in the information you were hoping to gain from the student. After completing the interview, review your questions and revise them. As you are revising them, explain briefly why you revised each question.

STEP 3: Write

After completing this activity, you may be asked to submit a short reflection paper including the following items. First, explain the research questions you chose for the project and discuss the dependent variable you were hoping to measure. Second, include your original list of interview questions and briefly explain what information you were hoping to learn in your interview. Third, discuss what happened in your interview and what you learned from the experience.

Finally, include a list of your revised questions and provide a detailed explanation of why you revised your questions. Your instructor will give you further details on the length of this paper and may include other topics in this paper.

STEP 4: Discussion

At some point, your instructor may lead the class in a discussion of survey research, and you could be asked to share your experiences with this project. Please note that there are numerous variations of this activity, and your instructor may have further directions.

Instructor's Notes: This activity can be a simple class exercise as noted in the textbook or can be developed into a more complicated learning tool. It is best to have some examples on hand or to ask two students to demonstrate the process in class prior to assigning this activity. Many introductory instructors require students to develop a survey of some type and conduct it on campus and share the results with the class as part of some formal paper or final project. These types of survey projects can include passing out surveys on campus, in person interviews, and on-line using technologies like Survey Monkey. This activity can take time and may be better suited for an out of class activity. It is important to write up specific guidelines for this assignment and to be clear about expectations. Quicker options to this activity include:

1. Provide students with previous survey questions/interview questions from common surveys like General Social Survey and ask students to discuss the problems with the survey questions and to revise and suggest new ones. Here are a couple of good websites to suggest to students:

<http://www.statpac.com/surveys/>

<http://www.surveysystem.com/sdesign.htm>

2. Have students replicate some type of survey. You would either provide the survey or have them find one to replicate. This would save some time with development of the survey and helps students learn more about the process of research rather than survey development.

This may also be an opportunity to help students understand Institutional Review Boards and policies for conducting student research. You will want to contact your particular review board for more information on this issue.

Try It Exercise: Applying Social Science Research Questions to Social Science Methods
(does not appear in text)

OBJECTIVE: This activity is designed to help you understand that there is not one best method of doing research. This brief activity enables you to explore various social issues and thinking about how you would apply the various methods to research questions.

STEP 1: The first step in this activity is to read over the numerous types of research methods presented in the chapter on research in your textbook.

STEP 2: Your instructor will assign each student (or groups of students) a topic to use in order to examine what research question would be best answered by a particular method. After identifying a research question, you will be asked to briefly explain how you would study this research question using this method. Please note that the research question always drives the choice of research method. This exercise is asking you to think about what possible research question a researcher would use if he or she were using a particular method. For example, if a researcher was studying the topic of homelessness and she were conducting an experiment, what might the research question be? After you identify a research question, you will want to briefly explain how the particular method would be used to study the issue.

STEP 3: You will want to complete the following questions below. You may need to answer on a separate sheet of paper.

What Issue Did Your Instructor Assign?

Method 1 Experiment

1. What might be a research question that could be studied about this issue using this method?
2. What might be a hypothesis that could be tested using an experiment?
3. How would you go about conducting an experiment to answer this research question?

Method 2 Field Study(Participant Observation or Ethnography)

1. What might be a research question that could be studied about this issue using this method?
2. What might be a hypothesis that could be examined with this method?
3. How would you go about conducting a field study to answer this research question?

Method 3 Interview Studies

1. What might be a research question that could be studied about this issue using this method?
2. What might be a hypothesis that could be examined with this method?
3. How would you go about conducting an interview study to answer this research question?

Method 4 Survey

1. What might be a research question that could be studied about this issue using this method?
2. What might be a hypothesis that could be examined with this method?
3. How would you go about conducting a survey to answer this research question?

Method 5 Secondary Analysis

1. What might be a research question that could be studied about this issue using this method?
2. What might be a hypothesis that could be examined with this method?
3. Search the World Wide Web for a source of secondary data that could be used to study this research question. List the site and briefly explain how it could be used.

Method 6 Content Analysis

1. What might be a research question that could be studied about this issue using this method?
2. What might be a hypothesis that could be examined with this method?
3. How would you go about conducting content analysis to answer this research question?

STEP 4: Class Discussion

At some point, your instructor will ask you or each group to share your responses. Think about each of the methods and be prepared to discuss what particular research question interests you most. Please note that there are numerous variations of this activity and your instructor may have further directions.

Instructor's Notes: You may want to combine this particular activity with the Applying 8 Steps to Social Science Research Activity. The time used for this activity can be reduced by developing handouts with the assigned issues and methods to explore and asking students to discuss in groups and share with the class. As with all the activities in this textbook, you may want to simply use it as an in class activity to help students apply information being presented or you may want to consider making activities part of the grade in the class. All of the activities can be adapted for individual, partner, and/or group activities. Classroom size and time does play a role in how you may use each activity. You may want to ask students to compare and contrast the advantages and disadvantages of each method during the class discussion.

Try It Exercise: Applying the Eight Steps to Social Science Research (does not appear in text)

OBJECTIVE: This activity is designed to help you apply the eight basis steps used in social science research to a real social science problem.

STEP 1: The first step in this activity is to read over the eight step process in social science research found in the chapter on research methods.

STEP 2: Your instructor will assign each student (or group of students) a topic to use in order to develop a research proposal using the eight steps. You will want to think about the topic and decide what specific problem you (or your group) would like to research. Using the eight steps, develop a brief outline of how you would go about studying this topic. Please keep in mind to be ethical in your approach and to remember issues of confidentiality and anonymity. It is also important to be specific about the research method you choose. Be sure to explain why you chose this method and include some of the challenges you will face in completing this research.

STEP 3: You will want to complete the following details for each step. You will want to write your responses on a separate sheet of paper.

Step 1: What is your issue? (This will be assigned by your instructor) Why is this issue important to sociologists?

Step 2: Define specifically what your research question is or what problem you are going to examine.

Step 3: Explain what you would need to do in order to review the literature. Be specific about what resources you would need to examine and where you would find them.

Step 4: State your hypothesis (Be sure to explain the independent variable(s) and dependent variable). Briefly explain how you developed this hypothesis.

Step 5: This is where you are going to explain in detail how you are going to study your research question and hypothesis. There are numerous methods to choose from including experiments, field studies, interview studies, surveys, secondary analysis, and content analysis. You will want to explain in detail the process you will use to study your topic. Be sure to go into detail and be specific about issues related to the method you use. For example, if you choose a survey you will want to explain how you are going to select your sample and discuss some of the questions you might ask.

Step 6: Briefly explain how you are going to collect data and include in the discussion how you are going to ensure validity and reliability. This means you may want to go back and look at Step 5. There may be a need for multiple methods in order to ensure validity and reliability.

Step 7: For this step you are permitted to use your imagination and briefly explain how you go about analyzing data.

Step 8: Finally, you are permitted to explain what you think you are going to find. In other words, if you really were able to do this study, what conclusions do you think you would make?

When you are finished with explaining the eight steps, go to the library or to an online resource and see if you can locate an academic journal article that examined a similar research question or issue. Please note the bibliographic reference and briefly explain what this particular study concluded.

STEP 4: Class Discussion

At some point, your instructor will ask you or each group to share the research proposal.

Please note that there are numerous variations of this activity and your instructor may have further directions.

Instructor's Notes: The student directions indicate that the instructor will assign topics. You may want to examine some of the other activities for this textbook and consider assigning some of those. You may also want to allow students to choose their own topics but they may need some guidance. This activity can easily be done in a classroom setting and students can share their projects with the class. This is a good opportunity to reinforce what is meant by independent and dependent variable as well as how to write a hypothesis (See website below for a quick exercise to help review the differences). You may want to also discuss that there are other ways of conducting research. This assignment can be developed into a larger project that groups work on throughout the course. Here are some helpful websites and exercises that you may want to use in the classroom:

http://www.ssdan.net/datacounts/modules/index/hilal_indepdepvar_index.shtml

<http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/contents.php>

<http://gsociology.icaap.org/methods/books.htm>

<http://www.vts.intute.ac.uk/he/tutorial/social-research-methods>

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (p. 99)

Happiness

What makes people happy? Certainly social relationships and internal factors play a role. But so do other, larger factors, such as our group memberships and statuses. For example, gender has a small affect, with women reporting being slightly happier than men. There are also small differences with regard to race, with black and white respondents reporting being happier than others. So, what do you think?

Taken all together, how would you say things are these days--would you say that you are very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy?

1. Very Happy
2. Pretty Happy
3. Not Too Happy

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2004

Taken all together, how would you say things are these days--would you say that you are very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy? Americans report being happy. Slightly more than half of respondents reported being pretty happy, and another thirty-three percent reported being very happy. Those respondents who identified as upper class were the most likely to report being happy and the least likely to report being unhappy. Those in the lower class were the opposite, although three quarters of them reported feeling at least pretty happy.

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What do you think explains the social class differences in reports of happiness? Do you think one's social status causes happiness?
2. How did you answer the question? Think about why you answered the way you did. How much do you think your happiness depends on your group memberships and statuses? Why?

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (does not appear in text)

2000 Presidential Election

Sociological research is often used to gauge the political attitudes and behaviors of groups or of the general public. You often hear about polls predicting voting behavior, and after elections we have data about which candidate got how many votes. What we don't have is the demographic breakdown of who voted for whom. With a random, representative national survey, we can find out how voting behavior varies along such lines as gender and race. In this example, we are looking at voting for the 2000 presidential elections. So, what do you think?

If you voted in the 2000 presidential elections, did you vote for Gore, Bush or someone else?

- a. Gore
- b. Bush
- c. Nader
- d. Someone Else
- e. Didn't Vote

Actual Survey Data General Social Survey, 2004

If you voted in the 2000 presidential elections, did you vote for Gore, Bush or someone else?

While the numbers do not match up exactly with official vote counts, they are within an appropriate margin of error. The votes were split nearly half-and-half between Gore and Bush. What is interesting here is the differences in voting when we look at gender and race. Women were more likely to vote for Gore, and men were more likely to vote for Bush. The difference was only about 10% in each case. Black voters were dramatically more likely to have voted for Gore than for Bush, and white voters were more likely to have voted for Bush.

2000 Presidential voting by Gender, %

	Male	Female	Total
Gore	38.3	48.7	44.1
Bush	57.2	48.8	52.5
Nader	3.0	2.1	2.5
Other	1.0	0.2	0.5
Didn't Vote	0.5	0.3	0.4

	White	Black	Other	TOTAL
Gore	37.2	86.1	55.5	44.1
Bush	59.3	11.3	40.6	52.5
Nader	2.6	1.6	3.2	2.5
Other	0.6	0.5	0.0	0.5
Didn't Vote	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.4

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Why is there such a dramatic difference with regard to race?
2. Why are the General Social Survey numbers not exactly the same as the votes counted in the election? What is a margin of error and how does that concept apply here?
3. Do you think if you broke down the results by gender and by race that you would find even more dramatic differences? What might explain the differences?

Teaching Suggestions

Film

- *Obedience*: The film of the Milgram Experiment, described in this chapter, is an effective way to engage students in discussion of the experiment's findings, ethics, and methodology. The film shows research subjects going through the experiment and presents the basic findings and importance of the study, but it also reviews how the experiment was conducted, how participants were debriefed afterwards, and how results differed when Milgram used variations on the basic experimental setting and context. If you choose to show *Quiet Rage: The Stanford Prison Experiment*, when covering Chapter Three, as recommended in this manual, you can also discuss the relationships between the findings, techniques, and ethical issues presented by these two famous experiments.

In-Class Activities

- *Research Methods Practice*: Divide students into small groups and give them a chart in which one axis is a list of sociological research questions and the other axis is a list of the major research methods covered in Chapter Four. Make the questions simple and on topics that will interest students (e.g., "Why do teenagers smoke?" or "Are people today less racist than they were in the past?"). Choose questions that lend themselves to a variety of research methods. Ask students to complete the chart by explaining how each question could be studied with each research method, or, if they feel a certain method could not be applied to a particular question, why that method could not be used. Also ask them to identify which research method is the best way to study each question and why. This exercise helps students solidify their understanding of the various methods and illustrates the point that the research question drives the method. After the groups complete their charts, discuss as a class to correct confusions and misapplications of the methods and to allow students to hear the variety of ideas their classmates came up with.
- *Common Sense Debunked*: The text introduces the power of sociological research methods by describing several topics (the effects of divorce on children, the nature vs. nurture debate) that the popular press presents one way while the sociological research calls those common sense conclusions into question. Expand on students' understanding of the power of sociological research by choosing several additional examples of common sense ideas that conflict with the sociological findings and lecture on them, sharing some popular media examples with the class (headlines, TV clips, etc.) and then presenting the research findings. Discuss with the class why the media so often get it wrong and what sociologists and students of sociology might do to change that. If you are interested in educating students about sociology as a profession, you might also discuss here the ASA's recent turn toward public sociology.

Projects, Papers, and Homework Exercises

- *Trying Out Content Analysis:* As a class, define a research question about the mass media that can be answered using content analysis (for example, how often sexual imagery is used to sell products). Also create a plan for how each student will gather data on that question (for example, each student will examine the most recent issue of an assigned magazine) and determine coding categories as a class. At home, students should find their assigned text(s) and do their coding. At the next class, combine everyone's data and draw a whole-class answer to your research question. Also use the exercise to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of content analysis as a research method. If you can find existing research on the question the class is studying, bring those results to class and discuss how the class's findings compare to previous research.
- *Survey Data in the News:* Ask students to find a newspaper or magazine article that discusses survey data. Have them answer the questions from the "How to 'Read' a Survey" box in the textbook (page 109) in relation to this article. Discuss in class how well the survey data was presented and the consequences of this presentation for public understanding of social issues and social scientific research.
- *Research Methods in Practice:* Assign each student one of the major research methods covered in Chapter Four (survey, ethnography, etc.). Give the class a list of major sociological journals and ask them to use library databases to find an article in one of these journals, published within the last five years, which uses their assigned research method. Students should read their chosen article and write a short response discussing the methods used and the questions they had after their reading. In class, have students share the most interesting articles they found and answer some of the questions they had. Also discuss whether anyone had trouble finding articles that used their selected research method, and use their answers as a springboard for discussing which methods are favored in sociology today, and/or in particular journals, and why.
- *Whole-Class Research Project:* If you really want to emphasize the scientific method and sociological research in your course, you can spend a chunk of the semester leading the class in a group research project. Once you have introduced sociology and its basic concepts and reached Chapter Four, work with the class on designing and carrying out a research project following the eight steps outlined on pages 101-102. You could use existing data (e.g., the General Social Survey), have students administer a survey to other students on campus or people in a public place like a mall, or design an observational study of some kind. Work carefully through each step of the research process (defining an issue, choosing a research method appropriate to study that issue, reviewing the literature, etc.) so students can experience sociology in action. Be sure to select a topic that students will find compelling. Perhaps even select a campus-life issue and when you get to the stage of reporting the findings, have students submit their report to college administrators. (If you can get the administrators to respond to the class, all the better.)

For Further Research and Reading

Babbie, Earl. *The Basics of Social Research*. New York: Wadsworth, 2007.

Emerson, Robert M., Rachel I. Fretz, and Linda L. Shaw. *Writing Ethnographic Fieldnotes*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1995.

Chapter Five: Socialization

Chapter Summary

Socialization is the process through which our identity is influenced by “nurture.” The socialization process is a fluid, lifelong process, and we are always changing as a result of it. The case of isolated children, as well as research on primates, shows that socialization is essential to becoming human.

Many theorists have developed stage theories of socialization, identifying a series of stages children and/or adults move through as they develop an adult self. These theories are problematic because of the rigidity with which they present the stages and the ways we progress through them.

We experience both primary and secondary socialization from a variety of agents of socialization, including the family, religion, school, the workplace, the media, and peer groups. These agents of socialization usually complement each other by teaching and reinforcing the same norms, values, and behaviors. Socialization varies as we move through the different stages of life, from childhood to old age. Gender socialization is an especially significant focus of socialization efforts by the major agents of socialization at all of these stages of life.

Learning Objectives

- To understand the history of the nature vs. nurture debate and to be able to explain the sociological perspective on this question.
- To be able to explain why socialization is essential to being human.
- To be able to describe several stage theories of development and to discuss the problems with these theories.
- To be able to discuss and provide examples of the influence of the major agents of socialization at various stages of the life course.

Chapter Outline

I. Introduction: Our self may feel like a fixed, core identity, but in reality, our identity is constantly changing over time, always in process. Sociologists examine both these aspects of identity.

II. Socialization and Biology: Our identity is based on the interplay of nature (our physical makeup) and nurture (what we learn from our physical environment and our encounters with other people). Scientists and philosophers have debated for centuries how the two factors interrelate and how much each contributes to identity. Sociologists believe that it is not nature *or* nurture that defines our identity, but rather, that both nature and nurture play a role. *Socialization* is the process by which we become aware of ourselves as part of a group, the process by which we receive the nurture that shapes our identity.

III. Socialization in Action: Compared to other animals, humans need an extraordinary amount of time to learn the skills to survive. During this time, we experience a great deal of socialization to learn these skills.

A. Feral Children

- Feral children are found from time to time, and the lack of human contact they experienced causes them to lack any basic skills for human interaction.

B. Isolated Children

- Children left in isolation from human contact by abusive caregivers may be able to recover with intensive socialization efforts once they are found, but some can never recover. These cases demonstrate that it is socialization that makes human beings human.

C. Primates

- Studies of isolated primates show further evidence that socialization is necessary for proper integration into a social group, and that even relatively short periods of time in isolation can irreparably damage an individual's understanding of social behavior.

IV. Models of Socialization: Socialization, and the development of identity, occurs in stages.

A. Mead and Taking the Role of Others

- According to Mead, young children see themselves as the center of the universe and gradually learn to understand the reactions of others over time. They learn this ability by proceeding through three stages of development toward the ultimate goal of taking the role of the *generalized other*: imitation, play, and game.

B. Piaget and the Cognitive Theory of Development

- Piaget argued that children's reasoning ability develops in four stages which each build on the last: the sensorimotor stage, the preoperational stage, the concrete operational stage, and the formal operational stage. Children need many opportunities to interact with others in order to learn and progress through these stages.

C. Kohlberg and Moral Development

- Kohlberg built upon Piaget's work to identify three stages in the development of moral reasoning: preconventional, conventional, and postconventional. Psychologist Carol Gilligan criticized Kohlberg's scale because it assumed a male subject and proposed a new concept, the ethic of care, that better described the development of moral reasoning in many women.

D. Freud and the Development of Personality

- Freud argued that the self consisted of three interrelated elements: the *id*, the *superego*, and the *ego*. The task of socialization is to make the ego strong enough to deal with situations where the id cannot get what it wants, and to make the superego strong enough to prevent the id from going after what it wants in the first place. In addition, Freud argued that children go through three stages of development to become healthy adults: the oral stage, the anal stage, and the Oedipal stage (which is starkly different for boys and girls).

E. Problems with Stage Theories

- Stage theories are popular and are often used in our daily thinking. However, there are problems with stage theories. The stages are rigidly defined, although many of the challenges meant to be solved at each stage are actually lifelong. In addition, failure to meet the challenge of a particular stage may not mean ultimate failure; perhaps we can meet that challenge during the next stage. Further, stage theorists usually claim that their theories are universal, but evidence from different cultures and time periods call this claim into question. These theories also assume that people leave a stage and never return to it, when in fact, socialization is a lifelong and fluid process in which we are constantly moving back and forth between stages.
- We often undergo *anticipatory socialization* in which we anticipate moving to the next stage/status, beginning a future-oriented project of acting as if we were already in that stage.

- When we enter a new role or stage, we may have to go through *resocialization*, learning the new values, behaviors, and attitudes needed for the new role. This process occurs throughout our lives, and failure to fully resocialize into a new role can create problems, while successful resocialization leads to a smooth transition into the new status.

V. Agents of Socialization: *Agents of socialization* formally or informally socialize new members. Over our lifetime we experience both *primary socialization* (learning basic behavioral patterns during childhood) and *secondary socialization* (learning the behavioral patterns needed for new roles throughout life). Socialization can be positive, but it also includes socializing people to norms that are oppressive and wrong. The various agents of socialization (family, school, religion, media, and peer group most strongly for children, and then also government, the workplace, and other social institutions for adults) generally work together, teaching the same norms and values. It can be difficult to disentangle where the influence of one agent of socialization ends and the next begins.

A. Family

- Different cultures have different family forms used to raise children. Our family gives us our first statuses and self-definitions based on belonging to certain groups. Different sorts of families socialize their children in different ways, teaching different sets of values. Socialization in the family happens mostly through the environment created in the family, not through intentional training.

B. Education

- We spend a great deal of our lives participating in education, which not only teaches skills and knowledge, but also socializes us, through a “hidden curriculum,” into race, class, gender, and sexual identity-based statuses.

C. Religion

- Americans are the most religious nation in the Western world. Religion provides a divine motivation for teaching children and adults certain social norms. This basis for socialization also means that it is easy to believe that if our social norms come from God, the social norms of other groups come from the devil, which can lead to distrust of out-group members.

D. Peers

- *Peer groups* have a major socializing influence, especially during middle and late childhood. Peer groups often teach their norms and values in painful and coercive ways. They may also resist the socialization efforts of other agents of socialization (e.g., the family or religion) by requiring different,

contradictory values and behaviors, although most often, they support the norms learned from the other socialization.

E. Mass Media

- We are constantly immersed in the mass media in both childhood and adulthood, so the ideas expressed in television, video games, and other media sources play a major role in socialization.

F. The Workplace:

- As adults, we spend a great deal of time in the workplace, which teaches us certain specialized skills and behaviors.

VI. Socialization and the Life Course: The stages we go through in life, some of which are marked by biological changes, are mostly social constructions that differ from culture to culture and by race, class, nationality, and gender.

A. Childhood (Birth to Puberty)

- Although we assume that children can be distinguished from adults by their interests, their nature, and their needs, this belief about childhood is not held in all cultures and is actually a recent invention in the West.

B. Adolescence (Roughly the Teen Years)

- The timing of the physical changes of puberty change over time and by culture. Psychologists in the early 20th century began to define adolescence as a stage of life in modern societies. Before this time, girls would be married at young ages and boys would enter the workforce at similarly young ages. The transition from childhood or adolescence into adulthood is often marked by a rite of passage.

C. Adulthood

- Adulthood is generally measured by the achievement of five markers: completing your education, getting a job, getting married, leaving your parents' home and moving into your own, and having a baby. While in the recent past, Americans would have achieved all these markers by their early 20s, today, people generally achieve them a decade later, leading psychologists to define a new stage called young adulthood to describe this intermediate period. In addition, because people change careers so often in adult life, that period of time can now be seen as a series of constant beginnings. After young adulthood, people move into middle age and then old age.

VII. Gender Socialization: Socialization into gender is one of the most significant forms of socialization we receive, involving considerable time and effort from a variety of agents of socialization. Girls and boys are punished throughout childhood, by various agents of socialization, for violating gender expectations. Socialization about gendered expectations continues into adulthood, especially through the mass media.

VIII. Socialization in the 21st Century: Socialization is a continuous process. We never reach one “true self” because we are always changing.

Key Terms from Chapter Five

agents of socialization: people, groups, or social institutions that socialize new members, either formally or informally (p. 137).

anticipatory socialization: when you begin to enact the behaviors and traits of the status you expect to occupy (p. 136).

ego: the balancing force between the id and the superego (p. 135).

gender socialization: socialization of boys and girls to accept two entirely different sets of social norms (p. 147).

generalized other: the role of the group as a whole, which a person takes on in the last stage of socialization according to Mead’s theory (p. 133).

id: the inborn drive for self-gratification (p. 135).

peer groups: groups of friends, usually homogeneous, who have an enormous socializing influence (p. 141).

primary socialization: socialization occurring during childhood that gives us basic behavioral patterns but allows for adaptation and change later on (p. 137).

resocialization: learning new sets of values, behaviors, and attitudes that are different from those you previously held (p. 137).

secondary socialization: occurs throughout life, allowing us to abandon old, out-dated, or unnecessary behavior patterns and giving us new behavioral patterns necessary for new situations (p. 137).

socialization: the process by which we become aware of ourselves as part of a group, learn how to communicate with others in the group, and learn the behavior expected of us (p. 129).

superego: internalized norms and values and the shame or guilt we feel when we break them (p. 135).

Key People from Chapter Five

Sigmund Freud: psychiatrist and founder of psychoanalysis; believed the self consisted of three elements (id, ego, and superego) and that children go through three stages (oral, anal, and Oedipal) to reach healthy adulthood (p. 135-136)

Lawrence Kohlberg: built upon Jean Piaget's work to develop a theory of stages of moral development (p. 134-135).

George Herbert Mead: sociologist whose stage theory of socialization centers on the concept of "taking the role of others" (p. 132-133).

Jean Piaget: Swiss psychologist who presented a cognitive theory of development, arguing that children's reasoning ability develops in four stages (p. 133-134).

Try It Exercise: Self Image and Socialization (does not appear in text)

Adapted from submission by Michelle Bemiller, Kansas State University.

OBJECTIVE: Understand that your image(s) of self have developed through interactions that occur with agents of socialization (media, peers, family, and the like) and that experiences with significant others have also played an important role in developing your sense of self.

STEP 1: Develop

Buy poster board to complete this project. (Your instructor may give you specific directions on what size of poster board.) Place a picture of yourself in the middle of the board (be sure to write your name on the top of the poster board). The rest of the board should be dedicated to photos, magazine pictures, words, phrases, and so on that help tell your story. Be creative and have fun, but make sure that none of your photos or the language used on your board could be offensive to others.

STEP 2: Write

Write a short reflection paper explaining what the poster is supposed to be communicating about you. Explain in detail what agents of socialization shaped your view of your self (for example, family, media, peers, education). How did these agents influence you? Include and discuss all the agents that apply. Choose two specific others within the agents of socialization and recount a specific experience where these individuals had an impact on your sense of self (this could be positive or negative). Your instructor will give you further guidelines on the expected length of this paper and other expectations such as grading. Be detailed and relate your paper to this textbook chapter on socialization. Be prepared to share your poster in class and to submit your paper to your instructor.

STEP 3: Discuss

Depending on the size of your class, your instructor may have you share your poster either with another student or with the entire class.

Instructor's Notes: This activity is similar to activities in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3. You may want to decide to only assign one poster activity and have students present this particular activity via a paper or a PowerPoint presentation. Students enjoy this activity. This activity can be adapted for large classes by having students share with a partner and developing a peer assessment tool for the activity. Rather than using a large piece of poster paper, you may want to just have students do a collage where they just use a regular 8/12 by 11 sheet of paper. This reduces cost to students and it easier for students to carry to class. Step 2 can be developed into a more formal paper requirement. You may want to develop more specific guidelines for the paper and not emphasize the poster as much. Another variation of this project is to have students focus more on the status and roles they play in society and develop a visual representation of their status set to share with students.

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (p. 140)

Belief in an Afterlife

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 1998

Do you believe in life after death? Data from General Social Survey for the 1990's show the following: More than half of the respondents definitely believed in life after death, and another one-fifth probably did. Only slightly more than 20% did not believe in life after death. More women than men believed in an afterlife (59.3 % vs. 53.3%). Social class differences were not that marked.

CRITICAL THINKING/ DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. From the GSS data seen above, it appears that Americans in general tend to believe in life after death. How does this reflect the character of American society and core American values?
2. Each religion has different ideas about the afterlife. How do history and culture affect how a religious group conceives its ideas about an afterlife?
3. This is one topic where there seems to be very little deviation with regard to either social class or gender. Why do you think that is?

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (does not appear in text)**Caring For Others**

Socialization touches every aspect of our lives. It's through socialization that we learn the norms, values, and beliefs of our culture and the groups we belong to. Agents of socialization such as the family, religion, and peers teach us how to live in the world and how to view the world, but not everyone is socialized the same. One thing we learn from those around us is how much we are supposed to care about others versus how much we should invest in self-interest. Men and women are socialized to care in different ways and to express concern for others in different ways, as well. So, what do you think?

People need not worry about others.

- a) Strongly Agree
- b) Agree
- c) Neither Agree nor Disagree
- d) Disagree
- e) Strongly Disagree

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2004

People need not worry about others. One quarter of respondents either agreed or strongly agreed with this statement. Another quarter was neutral. One half disagreed or strongly disagreed. The gender differences in responses were striking. Men were far more likely to agree with the statement than were women. Almost 32% of the men agreed or strongly agreed, in contrast to almost 20% of the women.

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. How much we think we should care for others versus care for ourselves is heavily influenced by how we are socialized. One level of socialization is that of the larger culture. What core values do you think Americans in general hold that might help explain these survey results?
2. What do you think lies behind the variation of responses with regard to gender? What stereotypically masculine qualities might make men report that they are less worried about the needs of others than women are? What stereotypically feminine qualities might teach women that it is appropriate to care for others? Where do we learn these qualities?

Teaching Suggestions

Film

- *Baby Beauty Queens*: This A&E program documents beauty pageants for toddlers and young girls and is a useful tool for discussing beauty culture and gender socialization of girls. You can follow the film with more general discussion of gender socialization and the ways boys and girls learn these values and norms from other agents of socialization.

In-Class Activities

- *Games as Socializers*: Ask students to generate a list of games they remember playing as children (e.g., “cops and robbers,” tag, board games like Monopoly, etc.). If you have the space and time, bring in some games and have the students play them briefly to make the exercise more concrete. Whichever approach you choose, lead students in a discussion of the lessons these games teach children and how games serve as a socialization tool. Connect this discussion to what students have learned about culture, especially if you have an ethnically and/or globally diverse class that can talk about games common in other cultures—for example, many children’s games in American culture emphasize monetary rewards and individuals as winners and losers, while perhaps games elsewhere emphasize teamwork. Discuss with students how these lessons prepare children to be adults in this culture.
- *Peer Groups as Agents of Socialization*: Select a movie or television show focused on teen life (e.g., *Mean Girls*, *Dawson’s Creek*). Show several relevant clips to the class, asking them to identify ways in which the clips illustrate how peer groups serve as agents of socialization. Lead a discussion of issues raised in the text: the ways in which the peer groups of teenagers and young adults both promote the values and norms taught by other agents of socialization and undermine those values and norms.
- *Gilligan v. Kohlberg*: In the text, the authors discuss Carol Gilligan’s critique of Kohlberg’s stage model of moral development. Present the class with the dilemma used in these studies and have students answer individually. Then, analyze the class’s answers as a whole, categorizing each as reflecting either the ethic of care or the ethic of justice, to observe whether there are gendered patterns in the responses. If you have a racially diverse class, you might also examine whether you can identify any patterns by race/ethnicity. Discuss the findings as a class. Add a lecture to provide students with more complete background on Kohlberg’s model and study, Gilligan’s model and study, and later research on Gilligan’s model. Use the discussion to also return to issues from earlier in the text about the ways that our theories and our research can be shaped by our personal, political, and cultural biases.

Projects, Papers, and Homework Exercises

- *Socialization Reflection Paper*: Have students write a reflective paper in which they discuss how the various agents of socialization discussed in the text socialized them over the course of their lives so far. Encourage them to examine both their individuality and how they have been socialized in culturally patterned ways.
- *Resocialization*: Ask students to read Smith and Kleinman's article (see references, below) on how medical students are socialized into the culture of the medical profession. Then, have them write a paper in which they analyze the norms and values they are being socialized into in a current job. Or, have them interview someone in a career they are not familiar with about the norms and values that person had to learn in order to fully participate in that career. In class, discuss how the socialization process changes us throughout our lives and the benefits and costs of socializing oneself into a new subculture, using Smith and Kleinman's criticisms of Western medicine as a guide.
- *Observing Children*: Not all students will have ready access to children they could observe, but for those who babysit, work at day care centers, or have young siblings, this project could be an assignment option. Ask students to observe children's play for a set period of time and to identify all the examples they can find of how the games, toys, peer interactions, and interactions with parents socialize the children. Also ask them to try to identify the children's stages of development according to the various stage theories outlined in the text. Ask them to conclude their paper by reflecting on what the observation taught them about the complexities of socialization, the problems with stage theories or other concepts in the chapter, and/or the questions the exercise raised for them about the socialization process and how it shapes our identities.

For Further Research and ReadingReferences Cited in the Text

Gilligan, Carol. *In a Different Voice: Psychological Theory and Women's Development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1982.

Additional Sources

Smith, A. C. and Sheryl Kleinman. "Managing Emotions in Medical Schools: Students' Contacts with the Living and the Dead." *Social Psychology Quarterly* 52: 56-69, 1989.

Konner, Melvin. *Becoming a Doctor: A Journey of Initiation in Medical School*. New York: Penguin, 1987.

Thorne, Barrie. *Gender Play: Boys and Girls in School*. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press, 1993.

Chapter Six: Deviance and Crime

Chapter Summary

Sociologists want to know what leads people to engage in deviant behavior and also what leads people to follow the rules most of the time.

Folkways, mores, taboos, and stigmas define appropriate behavior in our society and exert pressure on us to conform to social rules. We may also participate in deviant subcultures that encourage us to violate society's rules.

Deviance helps society maintain its cohesion. Sociologists also try to explain why deviance occurs, and the theory of differential association, the control theory, and the labeling theory all offer different explanations. Sociologists also point out how deviance is a product of social inequality.

In addition to trying to explain deviance, sociologists seek to explain crime, a particular type of deviance. Strain theory, broken windows theory, the study of criminal subcultures, opportunity theory, and conflict theory all offer different explanations. Sociologists also examine major types of crime, including crime at work, cybercrime, and hate crimes, and try to explain both why the United States has so much more crime than other countries and why our crime rate has been decreasing for the past 30 years. Both offending and victimization are related to gender, race, age, and class.

The criminal justice system in the United States involves police, courts, and punishments including prison and the death penalty. Sociologists examine the extent to which these institutions achieve their goals and how they may create or reinforce social inequalities.

Learning Objectives

- To understand the concept of deviance and the questions sociologists ask about it.
- To be able to describe and apply the various types of social rules society uses to define deviance, including how these categories relate to social inequality.
- To be able to explain Durkheim's view of deviance as functional for society.
- To be able to explain and apply sociological theories of deviance and of crime.
- To be able to describe the major types of crime and sociological perspectives on them.
- To be able to describe major issues in the criminal justice system of the United States today, including high rates of imprisonment and the use of the death penalty.

Chapter Outline

I. Introduction: From a sociological perspective, we are all likely both law-abiding citizens and criminals; the question is when and why we are one or the other. Similarly, depending on how we look at it, the United States can be seen as both “soft” and “hard” on crime. For a sociologist, the question is when we take each approach, why, and what effects those choices have.

II. What Is Deviance?

- *Deviance* is breaking a social rule, or refusing to follow one. Deviant acts can be small or large, and they may or may not be illegal. We may be aware of our deviance and keep our deviant acts or statements for certain settings where we believe they will be accepted. We may be considered deviant just because of a stigmatized group we belong to or because we associate with someone from such a group.
- Sociologists want to know what keeps people from breaking social norms and rules all the time (in other words, how social order and control are maintained) and why people do sometimes decide to break those norms and rules.

III. Conformity and Social Control: Each culture has various types of rules that prescribe appropriate behavior in that culture. The rules differ according to how formalized they are, how central they are to social life, and what kinds of sanctions will be imposed for breaking them. The unspoken conventions that rule everyday behavior are called *folkways*; norms with strong moral significance are *mores*; and prohibitions essential to the well-being of humanity are called *taboos*.

A. Stigma

- If you have an identity that is considered deviant in your culture, you are stigmatized.
- According to Goffman, there are three strategies stigmatized individuals can use to neutralize stigma and save themselves from a spoiled identity: minstrelization (conform to the stereotypes others have about you, exaggerating them when around those with power to define you); normification (try to minimize the differences between groups to show the commonalities); and militant chauvinism (maximize differences from other groups and use your social power to claim that your group is not only different, but better). Which strategy you use depends on the size and strength of your stigmatized group.

B. Deviant Subcultures

- Some *subcultures* are deviant. Deviant subcultures can only develop when three conditions are met: (1) the activity/identity must be punished (which gives people the motivation to seek out a subculture), but not punished too much (which would make the risks of membership too great); (2) the group must have enough participants (so enough people can be found locally), but not too many (which would make it pointless to create a subculture); (3) it must be complex (if it were too simple, people could engage in it on their own), but not too complex (which would require advanced education and creation of a counterculture or participating in the dominant culture).
- Youth gangs are an example of a deviant subculture. While youth gangs in the 1950s were fairly harmless, today, they are much more significant. Youth gangs are prevalent throughout the U.S. and are composed mostly of poor and working-class teens, usually male. Ethnic minorities are overrepresented among gang members because they often feel a stronger need for belonging since they are part of a numerical minority in society. Female gang membership is still fairly small but has been increasing in recent years. Research shows that teens join gangs because friends or relatives already belong to the gang, because they seek excitement, because they need protection, or because gang membership provides access to alcohol, drugs, and money. For some teens, gang membership can be seen as a rational decision given their economic and other opportunities and what opportunities the gang can provide. Although most gangs are involved in criminal activities (such as drug trafficking) only to make money, law enforcement has concerns about some gangs developing political agendas and working with Al Qaeda or otherwise pursuing political goals with violence.

IV. Deviance and Social Coherence: Durkheim argued that deviance helps society maintain its coherent identity because it: (1) affirms cultural norms and values; (2) clarifies moral boundaries; (3) heightens group solidarity; and (4) encourages social change.

A. Explaining Deviance: There are four major sociological theories that attempt to explain why deviance, especially major acts of deviance, happens:

- The theory of *differential association* states that people commit deviance when they receive more rewards and less punishment by violating norms rather than following them. What is deviant in one group may earn a person status in another group, and people may choose to risk the punishment they will receive from the former in order to gain the status they will earn from the act in the latter. This theory does not explain how the people who encourage the deviance become deviant in the first place, and it does not explain deviant acts that occur in situations where everyone around disapproves, or where no one is aware of the deviance.

- *Control theory* argues that people decide rationally whether or not to commit deviance, weighing the pros and cons of the action in a cost-benefit analysis. The people who have the least to lose are the most likely to commit deviance, because their cost-benefit analysis will show little on the “cost” side of the equation. At the same time, we are all subject to both inner and outer controls on our behavior, which push us toward following the rules in four ways: (1) attachment (strong attachments encourage conformity, while weak attachments encourage deviance); (2) commitment (the greater our commitment to the norms and values of the group, the more advantages we gain from conforming and the less likely we are to deviate); (3) involvement (extensive involvement in group activities inhibits deviance); and (4) belief (a strong belief in conventional morality and respect for authority figures inhibits deviance).
- According to the *labeling theory*, it is the social context that determines whether an act is considered deviant and how much punishment it warrants. Labeling theory thus sees deviance as relative, and as a process rather than a categorical difference between deviant and non-deviant. An action is only deviant if it is labeled as such by the dominant group. The same act might be deviant in some contexts but not others, or when committed by some people but not others. *Primary deviance* usually has little effect on our identities, but once we begin to commit the deviant acts repeatedly (*secondary deviance*), we develop a deviant identity. Some deviant actors engage in *tertiary deviance*, in which they try to redefine their acts or identities as normal and virtuous.

B. Deviance and Inequality

- According to some sociologists, deviance is a product of social inequality. The people who are labeled deviant are usually powerless people, because the powerful are able to make the rules or use their resources to avoid the deviant label.

V. Deviance and Crime: *Crime* is any act that violates a formal normative code that has been enacted by a legally constituted body. Some crimes are “bad in and of themselves,” while other crimes violate group norms only slightly and are bad only because they are prohibited. The following are five major theories to explain what causes crime:

A. Strain Theory

- According to the *strain theory*, excessive deviance occurs as a result of social inequalities that promote certain goals but do not provide equal access to achieving those goals. According to Robert Merton’s theory, which focuses on the goal of financial success, people may have five potential reactions in the face of this strain. People may become conformists, innovators, ritualists, rebels, or retreatists. The weakness of this theory is that people do not all share the same goals, even in a homogenous society, and that the theory

explains certain white-collar and property crimes well but does not effectively explain other types of crime.

B. Broken Windows Theory

- According to this theory, when people see social disorder (for example, damaged property or preexisting crime), they are more likely to engage in deviance themselves. The criminal justice system has responded to the evidence supporting this theory by creating new policing strategies aimed at eliminating social disorder. These strategies have been problematic, however, because the loose definition of social disorder allows police to see nearly any behavior or person as a threat to social order.

C. Criminal Subcultures

- Early studies of juvenile delinquency drew upon the theory of differential association to argue that young people engaged in delinquency because they were being socialized to do so. The lower-class children who engaged in delinquency were not exposed to the socializing agents that taught middle-class norms and values, and instead were socialized into an alternative set of values. Their most important values were nonutilitarianism, maliciousness, negativism, short-run hedonism, and group autonomy. Using these values to guide their behavior led to delinquency.
- Another theory to explain the juvenile delinquency rates of lower-class youth argued that the lower class as a whole was its own subculture, with values distinct from those of the main society. The lower class norms were: the prevalence of trouble; the value of toughness; the value of street smarts; the value of excitement; the importance of fate; and the importance of autonomy from authority figures. The belief in these norms led children to engage in delinquency.
- While these two theories effectively explained juvenile delinquency in the 1950s, today's youth gangs tend to be driven by more rational decision-making by their members, so this research is no longer a major focus for sociologists.

D. Opportunity Theory

- According to the *opportunity theory*, people who have opportunities to commit crime (especially good opportunities) are more likely to commit crime than are people with few good opportunities. Different sorts of deviant subcultures (criminal, violence, or retreatist) will develop depending on the opportunities present in a given neighborhood. The theory's weaknesses are that it does not account for the interrelationships between types of crime and

that it does not effectively explain types of crime, like white-collar crime, that are not related to neighborhood dynamics.

E. Conflict Theory

- *Conflict theory* examines whether the laws themselves are unfair, created by the dominant class to support its own interests and to control or suppress the subordinate class. From this perspective, even if the laws are enforced fairly (although they usually are not), the system still produces inequality because the laws themselves are not fair.

VI. Types of Crimes: There are two major categories of crime. *Violent crime* (murder and negligent manslaughter, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault) is handled by criminal courts, while *property crime* (e.g., burglary) is handled by either criminal or civil courts.

A. Crime at Work

- Crimes committed at work may include theft and *white-collar crime* (including *consumer crime*, *occupational crime*, and *organizational crime*). White-collar crime costs far more per year than street crime, but despite some high-profile cases in which white collar criminals were punished, in most cases, white collar crime is not punished, and even if it is, offenders often do not go to jail for their crimes.

B. Cybercrime

- *Cybercrime* (using the Internet and World Wide Web to commit crime) is a relatively new form of crime. Personal computers and the Internet have made some types of crimes easier to commit.

C. Hate Crime

- A *hate crime* can be committed by anyone, but it is usually committed by a member of the dominant group against a member of a subordinate group. Most hate crimes stem from racial bias, with religion, sexual orientation, ethnicity, and disability following in order of prevalence. Legislators sometimes support harsher penalties for hate crimes and sometimes do not. Advocates of harsher penalties argue that hate crimes harm the whole community to which that person belonged, so they should receive a harsher punishment. Opponents of harsher penalties for hate crimes argue that the attitudes behind the crime should not matter and people should be punished only for the act they committed.

VII. Crime in the United States: Although crime has been decreasing in the U.S. over the past 30 years, the U.S. still has higher crime rates than many other countries in the world. In particular, the U.S. has very high homicide rates compared to other advanced countries. Sociologists offer three possible explanations for our high crime rates: (1) American culture emphasizes individual economic success as the measure of self-worth; (2) not everyone has economic success (and crime rates decline when income differentials shrink); and (3) the easy availability of guns contributes to the crime rate. Sociologists have also proposed several factors that could explain the decline in the crime rate: an expanding economy, an aging population, an increase in the number of police officers, a decrease in the number of young males, longer jail sentences for hard-core criminals, declining sales of crack cocaine and the violence associated with the drug trade, increase in immigration by females, legalization of abortion, and the “little brother syndrome.”

A. Crime and Guns

- The United States has the weakest handgun ownership laws in the world and ranks in the middle of all countries’ rates of deaths by guns (although no other industrialized nation comes close). Although sociological research has shown the value of certain restrictions on gun ownership, the U.S. has difficulty passing even minimal regulations to monitor gun distribution.

B. Crime and Gender

- The great majority of crimes are committed by men, although the United States has the highest female arrest and conviction rate in the world. The gender gap may be influenced by the “chivalry effect” in which male police officers and judges see women’s crimes as less threatening and let them off with a warning. On the other hand, women who belong to stigmatized groups, and women whose behavior challenges gender norms, may be punished more harshly.
- Some criminologists argue that men’s higher levels of testosterone explain their higher crime rates, but this argument does not account for differences in crime rates by social class. Sociologists argue that the culture of working-class masculinity explains why these men are so likely to commit crimes.

C. Crime and Race

- African Americans are disproportionately likely to commit and to be the victims of crime. Latinos are also overrepresented in the criminal justice system. Each theory of crime offers a different explanation for this link between crime and race.

D. Crime and Age

- Young people also commit a disproportionate number of crimes. Gang activity may be one explanation, as might be the culture of masculinity among young men. Other males are the most frequent victims of crime, but females are vulnerable, too, particularly to rape and sexual assault.

E. Crime and Class

- The poorer you are, the more likely you are to be arrested for a crime. However, this may be better explained by the fact that the crimes of the poor are more visible and they are more likely to fit the criminal profile than by the fact of economic need. In addition, the poorer you are, the more likely you are to be a victim of crime.

VIII. The Criminal Justice System

A. Police

- The number of police in the U.S. has doubled in the past 30 years, but police only spend about 20% of their time on crime-fighting activity, spending the rest on paperwork, communicating to the public about risks, and other routine activities.
- The police have a split image. They make some people feel safer but make other people feel threatened. The police force in some communities has tried to address their negative image by becoming more integrated into the community they serve and by hiring more minority and women police officers.

B. Courts

- Criminal courts pit the government against the criminal offender in an adversarial system, while civil courts serve as arbiters between two parties. Most criminal cases never go to trial, being resolved by plea bargains or pleading guilty to a lesser crime instead.
- In the early 1990s, mandatory sentencing rules were established across the U.S., applying certain sentences to certain crimes without exceptions as a way to be tough on crime and to eliminate bias in sentencing and prosecution. The main result of these laws has been a major increase in the prison population. Bias remains in the system, and now, in addition, judges cannot take circumstances into account when issuing sentences.

C. Punishment and Corrections

- The United States has a higher rate of imprisonment than any other country in the world, even though we do not have higher crime rates.
- There are four major goals of incarceration:
 1. Retribution. The problem with this goal is that the punishment does not necessarily fit the crime since incarceration can't be made worse, and that there is race- and gender-based bias in the assigning of prison terms.
 2. Deterrence (the threat of punishment keeps people from committing crimes). Given that 30-50% of people released from prison commit new crimes, and that research evidence shows that fear of prison plays little or no role in the decision-making process of first-time or repeat offenders, it does not seem that incarceration is serving a deterrence function.
 3. Protection (protecting society from further crimes by taking criminals off the street). Incarceration, however, only achieves this goal temporarily for most criminals, since most are released from prison after serving their sentences. In addition, many prisoners learn in prison how to commit more and better crimes when they are released.
 4. Rehabilitation. Evidence clearly shows that prisoners lack the skills necessary to succeed in mainstream society and that those who participate in educational programs while in prison are less likely to return to prison. However, most prisons offer few rehabilitation programs, and most rehabilitation programs offered are underfunded and understaffed.
- Fewer than half the countries in the world use the death penalty, and no industrialized nations besides the United States do so. Most countries that do employ capital punishment use it for crimes like murder, while some use it for business and drug-related crimes. In the United States, it is used only in cases of murder and treason. Mentally retarded persons can no longer be executed in the United States, and although children were once routinely executed, today the death penalty may not be used on people whose crime was committed when they were under the age of 18. The American public strongly supports the death penalty for adult offenders, usually based on the argument that it deters crime. The evidence, however, shows little deterrent effect. In addition, the death penalty is applied unjustly based on race and on location (whether one lives in a state that will provide a thorough public defense). There are also concerns about executing innocent people. DNA evidence has shown that innocent people have been executed and put on death row.

IX. Globalization and Crime: Global criminal networks have long existed, but new technologies like the Internet have made it much easier for them to operate. Nonetheless, a great deal of crime remains local.

X. Deviance and Crime in the 21st Century: The sociological question about deviance and crime remains: not only why do people commit crime and deviant acts, but also, why do so many of us obey the laws so often?

Key Terms from Chapter Six

broken windows theory: theory that explains how social controls can systematically weaken, and minor acts of deviance can spiral into severe crime and social decay (p. 165).

conflict theory: theories of crime that rest on a larger structural analysis of inequalities based on class, race, or gender for their explanation of crime (p. 167).

consumer crime: white-collar crimes such as credit card fraud (p. 168).

control theory: argues that people are rational so they decide whether or not to engage in an act by weighing the potential outcome (p. 162).

crime: any act that violates a formal normative code that has been enacted by a legally constituted body (p. 163).

cybercrime: the use of the Internet and World Wide Web to commit crime (p. 170).

deviance: breaking a social rule, or refusing to follow one (p. 154).

differential association: suggests that deviance is a matter of rewards and punishments; deviance occurs when an individual receives more prestige and less punishment by violating norms rather than following them (p. 160).

folkway: routine, usually unspoken conventions of behavior (p. 155).

hate crime: a criminal act by an offender motivated by bias against race, ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, or disability status (p. 170).

labeling theory: understands deviance to be a process, not a categorical difference between the deviant and the non-deviant. The label depends on the groups' relative amount of power (p. 162).

mores: norms with a strong moral significance (p. 155).

occupational crime: white-collar crime in which criminals use their professional position to illegally secure something of value for themselves or the corporation (p. 168).

opportunity theory: theory holding that those who have many opportunities—and good ones at that—will be more likely to commit crimes than those with few good opportunities (p. 166).

organizational crime: white-collar crime in which criminals commit illegal actions in accordance with the operative goals of an organization (p. 168).

primary deviance: the first time someone breaks a norm; these acts provoke very little reaction and therefore have little effect on your self-concept (p. 162).

property crime: offenses like burglary or motor vehicle theft, where the object is the taking of money or property but there is no force or threat of force against the victims (p. 168).

secondary deviance: repeatedly breaking a norm; seen as a permanent personality trait rather than a momentary lapse, and leads to a deviant identity (p. 162).

social controls: forces that lead us to follow social norms. Includes outer controls (people who influence us into following social rules) and inner controls (internalized socialization, etc.) (p. 161).

stigma: an attribute that changes you, in Erving Goffman's language, "from a whole and usual person to a tainted and discounted one" (p. 156).

strain theory: a theory to explain crime; when a society promotes certain goals but provides unequal means of acquiring them, the result is anomie, a conflict between accepted norms and social reality. People may respond to this strain by being conformists, innovators, ritualists, rebels, or retreatists (p. 164).

subculture: a group that evolves within a dominant culture, always more or less hidden and closed to outsiders (p. 157).

taboo: a subset of mores; prohibitions viewed as essential to the well-being of humanity (p. 156).

tertiary deviance: a group formerly labeled as deviant attempts to redefine their acts, attributes, or identities as normal, even virtuous (p. 162).

violent crime: according to the FBI's definitions, murder and non-negligent manslaughter, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault (p. 168).

white-collar crime: the illegal actions of a corporation or people acting on its behalf. Includes *occupational crime*, in which the criminals use their professional position to illegally secure something of value for themselves or the corporation; *consumer crimes*, such as credit-card fraud; and *organizational crime*, which are illegal actions committed in accordance with the operative goals of an organization, such as stock manipulation (p. 168).

Key People from Chapter Six

Howard Becker: major scholar of labeling theory (p. 162).

Emile Durkheim: classical sociologist who argued that deviance is functional for society (p. 160).

Erving Goffman: sociologist whose work discusses stigma and ways people can neutralize its effects on their identities (p. 156-157).

Travis Hirschi: main theorist behind control theory (p. 161-162).

Robert K. Merton: creator of strain theory (p. 164-165).

Edwin Sutherland: creator of the theory of differential association (p. 168-170).

Try It Activity: Applying Theories to Deviance in the News (does not appear in text)

Contributed by Katherine Rowell, Sinclair Community College

OBJECTIVE: Apply what you have been learning about theoretical explanations of deviance to the real world of deviance and crime.

STEP 1: Research

Search for examples of news articles that demonstrate each of the above theoretical perspectives of deviant behavior (you will have three different articles and are not permitted to use the same article twice). There are numerous ways to find the news in our world today and for this project you may use news sources online or your local newspaper.

STEP 2: Compile information

After finding the three news articles, complete the following information for each one. If your news article is not available on the Internet, you will need to make a copy of it to attach to your completed information sheet.

For each news article, provide the following information:

1. Title of article
2. Author
3. Date and specific citation information
4. An explanation of why you think this particular news article demonstrates the particular theory.

Please note you will have one newspaper article for each theory. Complete these four questions for each theory/newspaper article.

STEP 3: Discussion

Be prepared to share your results in class. Please note that some instructors may collect this activity for a grade.

Instructor's Notes: This activity helps students learn to apply theories of deviance to newspaper/magazine articles. You can determine the time that this activity takes by assigning the number of articles that you think is appropriate. If there are limited amounts of time and large classes, you may want to assign one article to groups of students and have them discuss and report back to the larger class. This activity can be adjusted to fit any size class or any time constraint. This activity can be done in class and works well as an in-class activity. You may choose to bring newspaper and magazine articles for the students to review in class and have them identify what theories best apply to each article. This activity also works well as a group activity and you could require students to report to the entire class. This activity can be done with numerous chapters and works well for helping students understand theoretical perspectives of numerous topics.

Try It Exercise: Breaking a Norm (does not appear in the text)

OBJECTIVE: You will be given the opportunity to participate in a brief participant observation activity where you will be asked to break a social norm and record the reactions of those around you.

STEP 1: Identify the Norm

For this activity you will first need to identify a norm that you would feel comfortable breaking either in front of strangers or family/friends. Please keep in mind that you want to break a norm that is a folkway not a more or a law. A common norm to break for this activity is to ride an elevator facing away from the doors. Your instructor should be able to help you with a list of possible activities or help you brainstorm some ideas. If you are extremely uncomfortable with the thought of breaking a norm consider asking a friend to help you with the activity. Find a friend that would be willing to break the norm while you observe. This can be a very effective way of doing this project because you will be able to make better observations about the responses to the norm violator. Be sure to note your instructor's expectations for this activity and note any due dates before completing this activity.

STEP 2: Plan

After identifying your norm, plan to break it at three different times with three different people or groups of people. While you don't necessarily have to plan ahead to do this, it is a good idea to think about the times and places where you will get the best results. Be sure to have notebook paper on hand to jot down notes about the result of your violation.

STEP 3: Action and Take Notes

You are now ready to break the norm. This part of the activity should be rather quick and hopefully painless. After you break the norm, you will want to find a place to jot down a few notes. Where were you when you broke the norm? What was the time? How many people were involved? Describe your audience including things like gender and approximate age. How did they react? Upon completing the notes, you will then repeat this step two times.

STEP 4: Complete Activity Questions and Take to Class

Go back and look at your notes and answer the following questions. Please note your instructor may choose to collect these. What norm did you break and why did you choose this norm?

1. What made your behavior deviant?
2. How did you feel doing this activity? Was it easy or difficult?
3. How did others react to you?
4. Were you surprised by their actions?
5. What did you learn from doing this activity about social norms? About deviant behavior? About sociological theories of deviance? Explain.

This activity was contributed by Lynette Hoelter, University of Michigan. This activity is similar to activities developed by Harold Garfinkel known as “breeching experiments.”

Instructor’s Notes: This activity is a familiar one and often used in introductory sociology courses. It is close to the infamous “breeching experiments” conducted by Garfinkel. There are numerous variations of this project. This activity can be done very quickly by most students. This activity can generate much class discussion.

This assignment works best with some pre-planning on the part of students and you may want to ask them to submit a proposal prior to their completing the activity (this way you do not have too many students doing the same norm violation). You may also want to adjust the number of times you ask them to violate the norms.

Some students have difficulty violating norms (religious reasons) and you may want to encourage them to observe a classmate rather than require them to personally violate a norm.

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (p. 157)

Censoring perceived deviance

All groups have tendencies toward social control. The desire to censor people or ideas we think are deviant is strong, especially when those ideas seem in opposition to widely held values. At the same time, America prides itself on being a free country and free speech is protected by the U.S. Constitution. Different forms of speech seem to be threatening to a group on different levels. Let’s look at how you and other Americans feel about an anti-religionist, a homosexual, and a racist teaching college or having books in the library. So, what do you think?

1. Should someone who is against all church and religion be allowed to teach in a college or university, or not?
 - a. Allowed
 - b. Not Allowed
2. And what about a man who admits he is a homosexual?
 - a. Allowed
 - b. Not Allowed

3. Should a person who believes Blacks are genetically inferior be allowed to teach?
 - a. Allowed
 - b. Not Allowed
4. Should an anti-religion book be removed from the library?
 - a. Remove
 - b. Don't Remove
5. What about a book written in favor of homosexuality?
 - a. Remove
 - b. Don't Remove
6. What about a book that suggests Blacks are inferior?
 - c. Remove
 - d. Don't Remove

Actual Survey Data from the General Social Survey

There are always some people whose ideas are considered bad or dangerous by other people. For instance, somebody who is against all churches and religion . . . Should such a person be allowed to teach in a college or university, or not?

Data from 2004 shows the following:

65.1% said yes, 34.9% said no. The percentage of people saying "Yes" has steadily increased from 1972, when data showed 41.9% of respondents saying yes, and 58.1% saying no. The current percentage of 65.1% is the highest it has been since the survey started in 1972.

Censoring Perceived Deviance: % "Allow" Response

	1972		2004	
	M	F	M	F
Speak Against Church	45.3	38.4	69.4	63.3
Homosexual Speak	49.3	49.5	81.6	79.1
Racist Speak	46.0	38.8	53.5	41.6

What about a man who admits that he is a homosexual? Should such a person be allowed to teach in a college or university, or not?

Data from 2004 show the following: 80.1% said Yes, 19.9% said No. The percentage of people who agree that a homosexual should be allowed to teach has been steadily increasing from 1973, when 49.4% of the respondents said yes, and 50.6% said no.

Should such a person who believes that Blacks are genetically inferior be allowed to teach in a college or university, or not?

Data from 2004 shows the following: 47.8% said yes, 52.2% said no. There has been very little variation in responses since the question was first asked in the 1976 survey.

If some people in your community suggested that a book written against churches and religion should be taken out of your public library, would you favor removing this book, or not?

In 2004, the responses were 25.3% to remove the book and 74.7% to not remove it. Attitudes have changed somewhat since 1982, when 40.2% said to remove the book.

If some people in your community suggested that a book written in favor of homosexuality should be taken out of your public library, would you favor removing this book, or not?

In 2004, 26.4% of respondents said remove the book and 73.6% said don't. The percentage of people advocating removing the book has been in a steady decline since 45% said remove in 1973.

Censoring Perceived Deviance % "Remove" Response

	1972		2004	
	M	F	M	F
Book Against Church	34.4	40.0	24.7	27.5
Book for Homosexuality	45.1	45.0	24.1	26.7
Racist Book	35.1	40.2	29.3	37.8

If some people in your community suggested that a book which said Blacks are inferior should be taken out of your public library, would you favor removing this book, or not?

In 2004, 32.9% of respondents said they would be in favor of removing the book, while 67.1% said they would not. Although those numbers have remained basically steady since the 1970s, the percentage of people wanting to remove the book peaked in 1982 at 40.4%.

Discussion questions.

1. From the GSS data seen above, it appears that American's attitudes towards censoring unpopular ideas have changed significantly in the past 30 years. How does this change reflect changes in American society and in American values?
2. Why do more Americans seem to be tolerant of books in the library having perceived deviant views than they are of college teachers having perceived deviant views?
3. What does it say about American values that more Americans would censor an anti-religion point of view more than a pro-homosexual view?
4. Why do you think men are consistently less likely to be in favor of censorship than women?

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (does not appear in text)**Death Penalty for Murder**

The death penalty is one of the most controversial and extreme forms of social control for deviance. As of 2006, 38 states have provisions for the death penalty on their books. Lately, DNA testing has led to a number of death sentences being overturned, raising questions about wrongfully convicted people facing capital punishment. The disproportionate number of minorities who are executed makes it an even more contentious issue. There are many valid arguments both in favor of and in opposition to the death penalty. So, what do you think?

1. Do you favor or oppose the death penalty for persons convicted of murder?
 - a. Favor
 - b. Oppose

*Actual Survey Data from the General Social Survey**Do you favor or oppose the death penalty for persons convicted of murder?*

In 2004, almost 70% of respondents reported that they were in favor of the death penalty. When we look at the responses by race though, we see a very large and significant difference in response. Seventy-two percent of white respondents favor the death penalty for murder, while only 40% of black respondents do.

Attitudes Toward Death Penalty by Race % (2004)

	White	Black	Other	Total
Favor	72.2	39.9	66.0	68
Oppose	27.8	60.1	34.0	32

CRITICAL THINKING /DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. How can we explain the difference in white and black responses to the survey question? Why do you think so many individuals overall support the death penalty?
2. How do you explain the disproportionate number of death-row inmates who are black? How does this reflect inequality in society?
3. Although most states have the death penalty on their books, the number of death sentences has been decreasing. How can you explain this decrease?

Go to this website to look further at the data. You can run your own statistics and crosstabs here: <http://sda.berkeley.edu:7502/D3/GSS04/Doc/gs04.htm>.

Teaching Suggestions

Film

- *What I Want My Words To Do To You*: This powerful film documents playwright Eve Ensler's writing program in a maximum-security women's prison in New York, including performances of the women's writing by famous actresses like Glenn Close and Marisa Tomei. The film is emotional and will challenge many student's preconceptions about criminals and how they feel about their crimes and their time in prison. To make the learning experience more effective, ask students to do some reflective writing for a few minutes before the film begins about their image of a criminal or prisoner, how that person feels about the crime and about prison, etc. After the film, have students write about how the film confirmed and/or challenged their assumptions before discussing the film as a class.
- *A Hard Straight*: This film chronicles the experiences of three people recently released from prison as they attempt to start their lives over and work with the parole system. It is useful for discussing the practical challenges ex-prisoners face and, by extension, the challenges they faced before going to prison that may have helped to lead them to that outcome in the first place.
- *Broken Child*: This HBO documentary centers around the issue of child abuse and neglect, but it actually addresses a range of related crimes and social conditions, including prostitution, drug use, drug selling, violence, robbery, and sexual abuse. The film can be effectively used to illustrate and apply a variety of theories of crime. Have students watch the film with an eye toward identifying the range of crimes included and what might have caused them, and then as a class, use the theories from the textbook to explain the various crimes committed.
- *Girl Trouble*: This documentary chronicles the stories of three girls experiencing the juvenile justice system and provides a variety of discussion points related to the justice system, including the family and community factors that lead juveniles to commit crimes, the connections between social inequalities of race, class, and gender and commission of crime, the possibility of rehabilitation, and the strengths and weaknesses of the public defender system.

In-Class Activities

- *Rosenhan's Experiment*: In class, lecture on the methods and findings of David Rosenhan's classic experiment on deviance, reported in his article "On Being Sane in Insane Places" (see references). Be sure to include the most interesting anecdotes (such as the staff identifying Rosenhan's "writing behavior" as a symptom) in your lecture. Use the article to lead the class in a discussion of conflict theory, labeling theory, and the self-fulfilling prophecy as they relate to deviance.

- *Crime and Criminal Justice around the World:* In several parts of the chapter, the authors discuss how the crime rates and/or criminal justice structure of the United States differs from those in the rest of the world. Present a lecture in class, sharing with students additional details and examples of these facts, comparing the United States to both other industrialized nations (which usually have much lower crime rates and much more lenient justice systems) and to less developed nations (which we are often quite similar to our approach to crime). Discuss how we compare to these two sets of nations on other measures (human rights, free press, etc.) and how we tend to view these two sets of nations in general, and what it might tell us about ourselves as a country when we are so different from our peer nations on this issue. You might also add material on some of the more unique approaches to criminal justice in other countries, such as Japan's use of reintegrative shaming, and discuss with the class whether these unique approaches might work in the United States.

Projects, Papers, and Homework Exercises

- *Hate Crimes Exercise:* Chapter Six includes a short section on hate crimes. Ask students to explore this topic further by visiting the website of the Southern Poverty Law Center (<http://www.splc.org>), which tracks hate groups and hate crime activity in the U.S. Assign a series of tasks using this site, such as reviewing the list of recent hate incidents, examining and explaining the distribution of hate groups in different states, finding the number of active hate groups in their own state or in the country overall, and reading the organization's tips on fighting hate crimes. Students might be especially interested in reading the report, linked at this site, on hate crimes on college campuses.
- *Capital Punishment Debate:* Assign half the class to the pro-death penalty position and half to the anti-death penalty position. Ask students to research arguments for their side of the debate as well as to prepare responses to the likely arguments of the other side. If this is a short-term project, arguments will be enough; if you assign the project further in advance, you can require students to find data to support their points, to rely significantly on sociological research on the question rather than on whatever sources they can easily find, and to prepare written materials (such as an annotated bibliography or summary of key points) in advance of the debate. Begin class with time for each group to meet together to share their findings and prepare their best arguments and counter-arguments (and/or their most compelling data and sources). Then, have the two groups face each other and have a formal or semi-formal debate in which as many students as possible from each side participate. If you have a very large class, you might just select a subset of the class to participate in this exercise and assign the rest of the class to do their own research like the rest of the class but, during the debate, to evaluate the performance of the debaters and declare a winning team.

For Further Research and Reading

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Chapter Seven: Stratification and Social Class

Chapter Summary

Although Americans generally believe that the United States has no class structure, that we are all middle class, and that the opportunity for social mobility is widespread, sociological research shows that none of these ideas are true. Social class has a major impact on every aspect of our lives, the middle class is only one class among many, and social mobility is actually rare.

Every society has some form of stratification based on social class. Durkheim and mid-twentieth century sociologists argued that stratification benefited society by creating interdependence, while Marx and most sociologists today argue that stratification is maintained by elites for their own benefit. In the United States and worldwide, women and children are more likely to be poor than other people, and people of color are overrepresented among the poor as well. Sociologists explain poverty as the result of structural forces that are extremely difficult for individuals to overcome.

Stratification also exists on a global scale, with different nations having different levels of wealth and power. Some theorists argue that poor nations could escape poverty by developing capitalist economies modeled after the United States, while others argue that rich countries exploit the poverty of poor countries and help to keep them poor.

Learning Objectives

- To understand how sociological research calls into question common American understandings about social class and social mobility.
- To be able to explain the two contrasting explanations for the existence of social stratification and to understand why Marx's view has supplanted Durkheim's view among contemporary sociologists.
- To be able to compare and contrast Marx's and Weber's theories of social class.
- To be able to describe social class in the United States today, including the seven major social classes, the current state of income inequality, and the relationship between race and class.
- To be able to summarize facts about poverty in the United States and abroad, including problems with the poverty line standard and facts about who is poor in the United States.
- To be able to discuss theories about poverty and approaches to eliminating poverty both in the United States and worldwide.
- To be able to explain how social mobility works and how common it has been in recent American history and today.

- To understand the global stratification system and be able to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the different theories about the poverty of peripheral countries.

Chapter Outline

I. Introduction

- People in most countries are aware that they have a class structure, but in the United States, we generally aren't, even though we do have a class structure. In fact, every society has some form of a social class structure. The class structure is especially powerful in countries, like the United States, where people are not aware of its existence.
- Social class is the best indicator of an individual's "life chances" (the sort of life he or she is likely to have).
- Social class is both a source of identity and a structure of inequality.

II. What Is Social Stratification? Social stratification is the system of structured social inequality and the structure of mobility in a society. Stratification is a ranking of people. All societies rank people in some way, although different societies use different criteria. Once ranked, people receive benefits and rewards (money, fame, power, etc.) according to their social location and regardless of their individual abilities. People nearly always stay in the social class into which they were born, even in societies like ours where some social mobility is possible. Social stratification also includes a belief system that defines the system of unequal rewards as fair and just. People usually accept the system whether they are of high or low social rank.

A. Why Do We Have Social Stratification?

- Durkheim and some other classical sociologists believed that stratification was necessary in a complex society because it created interdependence among the society's members so that everyone "needs" everyone else. In the mid-twentieth century, sociologists like Kingsley Davis and Wilber Moore continued with this argument, adding that stratification allowed for significant mobility. They argued that stratification created a *meritocracy* in which those who rule the society, and those who take the most important jobs, are in those positions because they deserve to be. Society benefits as people work hard to try to achieve the best positions in the society. Current research, however, shows that social mobility is much less common than Davis and Moore suggested, and that job performance does not seem to be correlated with rewards received. This perspective on stratification, therefore, is obsolete.
- Karl Marx focused on how stratification benefits those on top at the expense of those on the bottom. For Marx, stratification is a case of oppression and exploitation. This perspective best describes the sociological view of stratification today. Stratification divides people, and elites maintain it for

their own benefit. They allow a small amount of social mobility to continue so that people will blame themselves when they do not succeed in rising in social class.

B. Systems of Stratification

- Some stratification systems have fluid boundaries, while others are more rigid. The three most common forms of stratification are:
 1. *Caste system*: a fixed, permanent system in which you are born into a position (caste) based on occupation and can not leave it. The most famous caste system is India's.
 2. *Feudalism*: a fixed, permanent system in which you are born either lord or serf and stay in that position for life. The lord-serf relationship is one of mutual obligation, with lords providing housing, food, and safety, while serfs provide labor.
 3. *Class system*: the most modern form of stratification, and the most open (allows the greatest amount of social mobility). Status is based on economic position (occupation, income, possessions) and is an achieved, rather than ascribed, status. Class systems feel more equitable because they present one's status as the result of one's own efforts.

III. Social Class: Most Americans believe that class does not have much influence on our lives anymore, but class is actually becoming more important (as events like the aftermath of Hurricane Katrina show), and one's class background is still the best predictor of the class one will end up in as an adult. Class influences major things about our lives (e.g., our jobs) as well as minor things (e.g., our taste in food and music). Class works on a global level as well—there are upper-, middle-, and lower-class countries.

A. Theories of Social Class

- The study of social class and stratification was a major focus of the founders of sociology:
 1. Karl Marx: Class was the foundation of Marx's theory about society. Society organizes itself in order to produce the things it needs, and to distribute rewards for this, and this system is our *mode of production*. The relationships people develop to facilitate this process are called the *relations of production*. Historically, some people own the *means of production* (the things needed for production, like land for agriculture) and everyone else works for them. Marx called the upper class, who owned the means of production, the *bourgeoisie*, and the lower class, who worked for the owners, the *proletariat*. Marx said

that the system was inherently unfair because the proletariat was always poor and didn't receive any part of the profits that were produced by their labor. Because the system was unfair, the classes would always be in conflict and the proletariat would eventually work together to overthrow capitalism and create a socialist economy where workers owned the means of production.

2. Max Weber: Weber argued that social class had three components: economic (class position), social (status), and political (power). They were often interrelated but could also be separate, which means that social class is more complex than Marx's vision described. Stratification, for Weber, was based on three dimensions: class position (income, wealth, occupation, and your relationship to production), status (what others think of your possessions and how you live), and power (the ability to do what you want to do, work with others to achieve desired political outcomes, and influence the actions of others). People may have high class position, status, and power together, but may also have some but not others (e.g., professors have high status but lower class position; flight attendants have high power but lower status and class position). Sociologists today still see social class as multidimensional as Weber did, but because we continue to add new dimensions (e.g., taste in art, social connections), we now prefer the term *socioeconomic status* instead of social class.

B. Socioeconomic Classes in the United States

- Sociologists today see six or more classes in the United States, and usually divide the classes based on household income, although this is not always the best indicator of social class. The seven classes are the upper-upper class (the super-rich, including those whose family fortunes were created generations ago, those who got rich from the computer age, and Hollywood and sports figures), the lower-upper class ("everyday" rich people like doctors and CEOs; household income \$150,000 to \$1 million), the upper-middle class (high-end professionals and corporate workers who are active as civic leaders; household income \$80,000-\$150,000), the middle-middle class ("average" American citizens, usually white collar and in a precarious financial position depending on their career success; household income \$40,000-\$80,000), working class (also called lower middle class; blue collar workers and some low-pay white collar workers; household income \$20,000-\$40,000), the lower class (also called the working poor; work in unskilled and semiskilled jobs, have less than a high school education; household income less than \$20,000), and the underclass (have no income or connection to the job market, supporting themselves on welfare).

C. America and the Myth of the Middle Class

- Americans generally believe that class is unimportant and that most Americans are middle class. In fact, however, class inequality is growing.
- Since the start of the twentieth century, the middle class has expanded greatly, and as people have gained access to new goods (homes, stocks) they began to identify with owners rather than workers. As a result, most people define themselves as middle class even when they have to stretch the definition quite a bit to do so.
- At the same time as more people identify as middle class, the availability of the middle-class lifestyle is shrinking. This is because the middle class exists partly because of government policies and opportunities in the economy, and the situation today does not lend itself to middle-class growth.

D. Income Inequality

- The United States has the most extreme income inequality in the developed world, with the top 5 percent earning an average of 11 times more than the bottom 20 percent. Further, the income gap in the United States is widening, more than doubling between 1980 and 2000. There are even greater gaps between white people and people of color.

E. Class and Race

- Although class is a more “achieved” status than race or gender, it is still much less “achieved” than we normally believe. There is little chance that a person will end up in a much higher social class than where he or she started. As a result, the legacy of racism discrimination has a major impact on class position, so African Americans are overrepresented among the poor (although there are, of course, also many poor white people). Although there is a growing black middle class, it is still small, indicating the strength of the barriers to social mobility.
- The world’s poorest peoples are also people of color—the primarily white nations of Europe tend to be wealthy, while African, South Asian, and Latin American nations contain more than four-fifths of the world’s poor.

IV. Poverty in the United States and Abroad: Under President Johnson’s War on Poverty, the United States government created a standard, called the poverty line, to define who was, and was not, poor. The way the poverty line is calculated, however, significantly underestimates the income necessary to live, because the numbers are based only on food, which costs much less than other expenses like housing; because they do not take regional variations in living expenses into account; and because they do not include costs for other things necessary for healthful living, such as child care and transportation costs. Yet even with poverty severely underestimated by this standard, a significant proportion of the United States population is

considered poor. Using an alternative measurement, the “dream line,” it is clear that the basic American dream (home ownership, quality child care, health care, and higher education for children) is not achievable for many Americans, and it has become harder to achieve than it was a generation ago.

A. Who Is Poor in America?

- Poor people are not all ethnic minorities, they do not all live in the inner city, and they are not all unemployed. Children and mothers are more likely than others to be poor, while the elderly are less likely than others to be poor.

B. The Feminization of Poverty

- Women make up an increasing number of poor people, both in the United States and globally.

C. Explaining Poverty

- One common explanation for poverty is that poor people are poor because they lack something (e.g. drive, ambition, discipline, willingness to work). We see such people as the “undeserving poor”—that is, they do not deserve help because their poverty is their own fault. Sociologists, in contrast, see poverty as a structural problem and believe that when poor people do lack motivation and drive, it is a result of their poverty, not its cause.
- According to Oscar Lewis’s *culture of poverty* thesis, poverty is a result of social and cultural factors. Poor children are raised to believe there is no point in working to improve their status, and poor adults resign themselves to living in poverty, so poverty is passed from generation to generation. However, survey data do not support the idea that lower-class people feel this way.
- The sociological perspective is that poverty is caused by structures of inequality—that is, by factors that individuals do not control, like economic changes, racism, and government policies. People living in poverty face structural disadvantages (e.g., poor education, lack of healthcare) that are nearly impossible to overcome even though they would like to get out of poverty.

D. Poverty on a World Scale

- Half the world’s population lives on less than \$2 a day. However, the number of poor people in the world has been decreasing in recent years, mainly because of the improving economy in China. Sub-Saharan Africa is now the most impoverished region in the world.

E. Reducing Poverty

- Despite efforts like the War on Poverty, a greater proportion of families and children live in poverty in the United States today than did in 1973. Poverty is difficult to eliminate because the structural factors that cause it are so entrenched.
- Nearly all industrialized societies have a welfare system that provides the basic structural features needed for people to work their way out of poverty, including free education, national healthcare, and housing allowances. The United States does not provide this, and as a result the United States has the highest percentage of poor people in the industrialized world.
- Efforts to reduce global poverty usually involve monies from richer countries or from global organizations or philanthropists. These funds help poor countries build roads and other crucial infrastructure, but sometimes are criticized because they are misspent by corrupt governments and don't actually get to the people. New programs, like microcredit and conditional cash transfer schemes, direct smaller amounts of money directly to poor individuals.

V. Social Mobility: Social mobility is movement from one class to another. It can be intergenerational (you are in a different social class than your parents) or intragenerational (you move between classes within your lifetime). Early research (1965) on social mobility shows that Americans believe in it strongly but that it is much less common than we think. Mobility within a class occurs regularly, but mobility between classes is very rare. More recent research shows mobility has increased somewhat but that downward mobility is just as common as upward mobility.

A. Dynamics of Mobility

- Much of the upward mobility identified in early studies was structural mobility (a general upward trend in society as a result of the post-WWII economic boom). Recent losses of manufacturing jobs have led to a trend toward downward mobility, including significant underemployment and temporary/part-time work.
- Mobility mostly takes place within groups (e.g. the lower class experiences an income increase) rather than between groups.
- White people have greater mobility than people of color, and men have greater opportunities for upward mobility than women. Women also often experience downward mobility when they divorce because they have restricted their own careers in order to fulfill childcare and household duties.

B. Social Mobility Today

- America has less mobility now than in the past and has less mobility than many other industrialized countries, but Americans still believe in mobility.

VI. Global Inequality: Global inequality is systematic differences in wealth and power among countries. The world is developing a global class structure in which the upper classes in different countries are more similar to each other than they are to the middle class in their own countries. Over the past thirty years, global inequality has increased (rich countries have gotten richer, poor countries have gotten poorer).

A. Classifying Global Economies

- Social scientists used to divide the world into three socioeconomic categories: high-, middle-, and low-income countries.
- There are about 40 high-income countries, including the United States (\$37,800 per capita GDP), Switzerland (\$32,600), Japan (\$28,000), and Spain (\$22,000). These countries cover 25 percent of the world's land surface and are home to 17 percent of its population.
- There are about 90 middle-income countries, divided into high middle-income countries like Portugal (\$18,000 per capita GDP), Uruguay (\$12,600), and South Africa (\$10,700) and low middle-income countries like Brazil (\$7,600), Libya (\$6,400), and China (\$5,000). These countries cover 47 percent of Earth's land area and are home to more than half of its population.
- There are about 60 low-income countries, including Jamaica (\$3,800 per capita GDP), India (\$2,900), Kenya (\$1,000), and Somalia (\$500). These countries cover 28 percent of the world's land area and are home to 28 percent of its population.

B. Explaining Global Inequality

- Market theories of inequality take the position that economic development requires the development of capitalism unfettered by government intervention. *Modernization theory* argues that poor countries stay poor because their people do not have an adequate work ethic and their governments enable that poor work ethic with economic policies that interfere in the market. Critics of modernization theory point out that it is ethnocentric to expect other countries to follow the same economic path as the United States, insulting to blame poverty on the people of these countries, and misleading to portray wealthy countries as helpers to poor countries when they actually often take advantage of poor countries and block their economic development. Modernization theory is still influential today, especially in efforts to develop free trade or limit government restrictions like labor or environmental laws.

- State-centered theories believe that intervention by government or by international organizations will make economic growth possible. These efforts often have terrible effects (e.g. exploitation of workers, repression of civil rights) but are very effective in fostering economic development.
- *Dependency theory* argues that poor countries are poor because they are exploited by wealthy countries and multinational corporations that block the poor countries' economic growth. This exploitation began with *colonialism* but continued after colonialism ended. Critics argue that dependency theory is simplistic because it puts all the blame on high-income countries and multinationals.
- *World System Theory*, related to dependency theory, argues that the economy is an international network dominated by capitalism, with each country linked to the others as part of the *world economy*. The world economy divides the world into three economic zones: *core*, *periphery*, and *semiperiphery*. The theory emphasizes *global commodity chains* that connect raw materials to finished products to consumers. The most profitable activities in the chain are done in the core countries. Critics say that world system theory portrays this exchange as only one-way, ignoring the complexities of economic exchange.

C. Global Mobility

- Just as people may experience social mobility, countries may move from periphery to core (e.g., the newly industrializing countries of Asia), or vice versa (e.g., the economic decline of Russia after the breakup of the Soviet Union).

VII. Class Identity and Class Inequality in the 21st Century: Americans continue to claim class is not important even as it is increasingly important in shaping our lives today.

Key Terms from Chapter Seven

bourgeoisie: popularized by Karl Marx, term for the upper-class capitalists who owned the means of production. In Marx's time, they owned factories instead of farms. Today the term is also used to refer to upper-class managers who wield a lot of power (p. 194).

caste system: fixed and permanent, assigned to it at birth, without any chance of getting out (p. 191).

class: a group of people sharing the same social position in society. Class is based on income, power, and prestige (p. 193).

class system: system of stratification based on economic position in which people are ranked based on achieved status. The most open form (i.e., permitting the most social mobility) of stratification (p. 193).

colonialism: a political-economic system under which powerful countries established, for their own profit, rule over weaker peoples or countries and exploited them for their resources and cheap labor (p. 215).

culture of poverty: Oscar Lewis's theory that poverty is not a result of individual inadequacies, but of larger social and cultural factors. Poor children are socialized into believing that they have nothing to strive for, that there is no point in working to improve their conditions. As adults, they are resigned to a life of poverty, and they socialize their children the same way. Therefore poverty is transmitted from one generation to another (p. 206).

dependency theory: theory that focuses on the unequal relationship between wealthy countries and poor countries, arguing that poverty is the result of exploitation (p. 215).

feminization of poverty: sociological term for the confluence of factors that has made women a disproportionate number of the poor. (Worldwide, of all impoverished people over the age of 18, 61% are women and 39% are men) (p. 205).

feudalism: system of stratification common in medieval Europe between the eleventh and sixteenth centuries, in Japan, and a few other regions, where there were a few merchants and "free men," but most of the population consisted of peasants and serfs, who worked the estates belonging to feudal lords (1 to 3% of the population). Feudalism was also a fixed and permanent system: If you were born a lord or a serf, you stayed there your whole life (p. 192).

global commodity chain: worldwide networks of labor and production processes, consisting of all pivotal production activities that form a tightly interlocked "chain" from raw materials to finished product to retail outlet to consumer. The most profitable activities in the commodity chain (engineering, design, advertising) are likely to be done in core countries, while the least profitable activities (mining or growing the raw materials, factory production) are likely to be done in peripheral countries (p. 217).

global inequality: systematic differences in wealth and power among countries, often involving exploitation of the less powerful by the more powerful countries (p. 212).

meritocracy: social system in which the greater the functional importance of the job, the more rewards it brings, in salary, perks, power, and prestige (p. 191).

modernization theory: W. W. Rostrow's theory focusing on the conditions necessary for a low-income country to develop economically. Arguing that a nation's poverty is largely due to the cultural failings of its people, Rostrow believed poor countries could develop economically only if they give up their "backward" way of life and adopt modern Western economic institutions, technologies, and cultural values that emphasize savings and productive investment (p. 214).

poverty line: estimated minimum income required to pay for food, shelter, and clothing. Anyone falling below this income is categorized as poor (p. 203).

power: the ability to get others to do what you want them to do, regardless of their own desires (p. 195).

proletariat: popularized by Karl Marx, the term for the lower classes who were forced to become wage laborers or go hungry. Today, the term is often used to refer to the working class (p. 194).

social mobility: the movement from one class to another, it can occur in two forms: *intergenerational*—that is, your parents are working class, but you become lower, or your parents are middle class, but you become upper class; and *intragenerational*—that is, you move from working to lower, or from middle to upper, all within your lifetime (p. 193).

social stratification: taken from the geological term for layers of rock or "strata," the ranking of people into defined layers. Social stratification exists in all societies and is based on things like wealth, race, and gender (p. 190).

socioeconomic status (SES): your social connections, your taste in art, your ascribed and achieved statuses, and more. Because there are so many components, sociologists today tend to prefer the concept of socioeconomic status to that of social class, to emphasize that people are ranked through the intermingling of many factors, economic, social, political, cultural, and community (p. 195).

status: one's socially defined position in a group; it is often characterized by certain expectations and rights (p. 195).

structural mobility: when people experience social mobility because the entire society got wealthier (p. 210).

underclass: about four percent of the U.S. population, this group has no income, no connection to the job market, little education, inadequate nutrition, and substandard housing or none at all. They have no possibility of social mobility and little chance of achieving the quality of life that most people would consider minimally acceptable (p. 198).

world system theory: Immanuel Wallerstein's theory that the interconnectedness of the world system began in the 1500s, when Europeans began their economic and political domination of the rest of the world. Because capitalism depends on generating the

maximum profits for the minimum expenditures, the world system continues to benefit rich countries (which acquire the profits) and harm the rest of the world (by minimizing local expenditures and therefore perpetuating poverty) (p. 216).

Key People from Chapter Seven

Oscar Lewis: Author of the culture of poverty thesis which attributes poverty to social and cultural factors rather than individual failings (p. 206-207).

Karl Marx: One of the founders of sociology and the first sociologist to define his entire social theory around social class, coining such key terms as *bourgeoisie*, *proletariat*, and *means of production*. He also developed the early theory that social stratification was maintained by elites for their own benefit (p. 194).

Immanuel Wallerstein: Creator of world system theory and the term *world economy* (p. 216-217).

Max Weber: One of the founders of sociology; built upon Marx's theory of social class by describing three dimensions of one's social class: class position, status, and power (p. 194-195).

Try-It Exercise: Living on an Impoverished Salary (does not appear in text)

Contributed by Jeff Dixon, Indiana University

OBJECTIVE: While no activity can truly help you totally understand what it is like to live in poverty, this activity will give you a sense of what it might be like to be poor in the United States and also what it might be like to be poor in a developing country in the world. You might want to start thinking about this activity by watching the short film clip located at the following website: www.nccbuscc.org/cchd/povertyusa/tour2.htm

STEP 1: Research

Review the following two scenarios before moving to Step 2.

- Scenario 1: Single mother with one child in the United States. Go to the following website and note what a livable family budget would look like for this family in your geographic location: www.epinet.org/content.cfm/datazone_fambud_budget. Assume that this mother is earning minimum wage in your state and works 35 hours a week as a part-time worker with no benefits. Assume her child is 4 years old and that this mother must pay for child care when she works. Next assume that there is no other financial support.
- Scenario 2: Single mother with one child in Haiti. Go to the following website and read about global poverty and what it means to live on less than \$2.00 a day: www.globalissues.org/TradeRelated/Facts.asp. Using Google.com as your search engine, type in the words "Poverty" and "Haiti." Review some of the websites that deal with Haitian poverty. Assume that this mother is currently unemployed and that she is

unable to find a regular job. She is able to find periodic day labor and makes the equivalent of \$1.00 a day. Assume that her child is 4 years old and that there are relatives who help with child care. Next assume that there is no other financial support.

STEP 2: Plan

Using the information provided in Step 1, prepare a monthly budget for each scenario. When in doubt about information, estimate your figures and explain the reasons for your estimation.

STEP 3: Explain

After looking at the budgets for each scenario, briefly explain what life would be for families in both Scenario 1 and Scenario 2.

STEP 4: Theories

Examine what theories in this chapter offer the best explanations for poverty in the two scenarios and provide an explanation of your responses.

STEP 5: Discussion

Be prepared to discuss your responses and to turn in your budgets for each scenario, your explanations of what life would be like, and your theoretical explanations.

Instructor's Notes: This activity is designed to help students understand the difficulties of budgeting with minimal resources. It is a great activity to do in class and can be set up to take minimal amounts of class time. Should you choose to do this activity using class time, it is helpful to create a budget outline ahead of time to help the students quickly plan a budget for the family. The suggested website can be helpful to cover all the budgeting needs. Also to save time, assigning students to groups can work very well with this particular activity. You could even explore more than one scenario and have the groups report back on each scenario. Some students have difficulty setting up a budget and you will need to be available to answer questions. Also, depending on the setting of your institution, this can be an emotionally painful exercise for students who are living on minimum wage and having problems supporting their families. You will want to be prepared to take time for a class discussion on this activity. There are numerous scenarios and activities that can be designed to compliment this activity:

1. Food Stamp Challenges: Numerous communities are engaged in asking citizens to try to leave off \$21 for one week. See the following website for more information:

<http://www.michiganfoodstampchallenge.org/>

This would be a great activity to include as an out of class assignment and ask students to reflect and write a journal about the experience.

2. Consider showing the film: *Waging a Living* and using some of the discussion materials provided by PBS. The educational materials provided include several variations to this particular activity. See the following website for more information:

<http://www.pbs.org/pov/pov2006/wagingaliving/for.html>

Try It Exercise: Thinking About the Differences in Social Class (does not appear in text)

OBJECTIVE:

This activity will give you an opportunity to use sociology to think about the ways social class impacts daily life. This activity is designed to help you explore social class differences by examining the shopping experiences of the wealthy and the poor. There are numerous ways of doing this project and your instructor may assign different locations and activities for this project.

STEP 1: Review what is meant by social class in your textbook in Chapter 6. After reviewing this material, go to the New York Times website entitled Class Matters for deeper analysis of social class in the United States: <http://www.nytimes.com/pages/national/class/index.html>

STEP 2: Think about the stores in your area and identify one store where you think mostly working class people shop and identify another store where you think mostly wealthy people shop. This could be any type of store ranging from grocery stores to clothing stores. In identifying these two locations, be sure to note why you chose these two locations and why you think people of working class shop at one store and why you think the wealthy are more likely to be found at the other store.

STEP 3: Visit each of the two locations and make observations. Complete the following questions below for each location:

1. Briefly describe the store and the location. Explain why you chose this store.
2. Describe the interior and exterior appearance of the store.
3. What types of items does this store sell? What are typical prices?
4. How were the customers dressed? How were the employees dressed? What types of cars are in the parking lot?
5. What is the general feeling in the store?
6. How did most people appear to be paying for their purchases?
7. What products are being sold and where do most of the products seem to be made?
8. Overall, do you think your first impression of this store was correct or did you note a variety of people shopping at this store? Explain.
9. What other areas do you think you would find differences in social class in your community? Explain.
10. Have you ever had an experience where you felt you were being treated differently because of social class? Explain.

STEP 4: Be prepared to share your answers in class. Please note that some instructors may collect this assignment or add additional requirements to this project.

Instructor's Notes: This activity is a familiar one and often used in introductory sociology courses. This particular suggestion could work as a pair or group project and often students enjoy working together on this project. This activity can be easily broadened and expanded to include further research and examination of more detailed data analysis.

There are numerous options that you could develop for this project. This activity works well as a visual sociology project where students take photographs of their experiences and share them in class. You may also want to think about different scenarios other than shopping experiences. For instance, you could assign an examination of religious structures in different neighborhoods or health care provider buildings.

Some students may not be comfortable in either a wealthy shopping scenario or a poor shopping scenario. You may want to discuss this with the students before assigning this activity. Also, depending on the location of your institution the types of scenarios really needed to explore this may not be available. A viable alternative is to have students analyze on-line shopping experiences. There are numerous websites that allow both the wealthy and the poor to shop online. Depending on where your institution is located and the type of students you may have in the classroom, this may be an alternative to explore.

Here are some great web resources to use for this activity:

<http://www.nytimes.com/pages/national/class/index.html>

<http://www.classmatters.org/>

<http://www.pbs.org/peoplelikeus/>

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (p. 196)

Conflict Between Poor and Rich in the United States

Any society that has a surplus of goods or money is going to have inequality. Since capitalist countries are built on a profit-based economy, they can be especially prone to inequality based on economic status, and this inequality often leads to conflict between the rich and the poor. The rich want to keep the status quo so that they hold onto their power, prestige, and wealth. On the other hand, the poor often want social change so that they can have a piece of the pie with regard to power, prestige, and wealth. It is sociologically interesting to examine how those in different social classes perceive the conflict between the rich and poor. So, what do you think?

In all countries, there are differences or conflicts between different social groups. In your opinion, in America, how much conflict is there between poor people and rich people?

- a. Very Strong Conflict
- b. Strong Conflict
- c. Not Strong Conflict
- d. No Conflict

Actual Survey Data From the General Social Survey

In all countries, there are differences or conflicts between different social groups. In your opinion, in America, how much conflict is there between poor people and rich people? In the

2000 General Social Survey, more than half of all respondents said they thought there was either strong or very strong conflict between the rich and the poor. Those who identified as lower class were far more likely than others to say there was strong or very strong conflict. With regard to race, blacks were far more likely than whites to report they thought there was strong or very strong conflict.

Perception of Conflict by Social Class %

	Lower	Working	Middle	Upper	Total
Very Strong Conflict	39.2	14.4	12.6	7.3	14.5
Strong Conflict	47.1	46.3	40.1	41.5	43.4
Not Strong Conflict	11.8	37.2	43.2	48.8	39.1
No Conflict	2.0	2.2	4.1	2.4	3.0

Perception of Conflict by Race %

	White	Black	Other	Total
Very Strong Conflict	12.2	27.3	15.9	14.4
Strong Conflict	43.3	42.9	46.0	43.4
Not Strong Conflict	41.7	26.6	33.3	39.1
No Conflict	2.9	3.2	4.8	3.0

Discussion questions

1. Around sixty percent of all respondents reported that they thought there was strong or very strong conflict between the rich and the poor in America. Why do you think that is? What are the sources of this conflict?
2. The social class difference in responses was significant. Almost ninety percent of those who identified as lower class reported thinking there was strong or very strong conflict, while only about sixty percent of those who identified as upper class reported the same. What explains the social class differences?
3. Black Americans were far more likely than white Americans to report thinking there is strong or very strong conflict between the rich and the poor. In sociology, we study the intersections between race, class, and gender. How does the intersection of race and class help explain these survey results?

Go to this website to look further at the data. You can run your own statistics and crosstabs here: <http://sda.berkeley.edu:7502/D3/GSS04/Doc/gs04.htm>.

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (does not appear in text)**Charity**

American values have traditionally included a belief in equality and charity, but individuals internalize and act on these values in different ways. Some choose to donate time to a cause of their choice by volunteering with formal organizations while others choose to help people on an individual, day-to-day basis. Still others choose to donate financially to a cause. There is also a social expectation that those who have more should give more, whether they are giving time or money. So, what do you think?

1. During the past 12 months, how often have you given money to a charity?
 - a. More Than Once a Week
 - b. Once a Week
 - c. Once a Month
 - d. At least 2 or 3 times in Past Year
 - e. Not at all in Past Year
2. Over the past 5 years have you contributed your time to help the needy?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

Actual Survey Data From the General Social Survey

During the past 12 months, how often have you done each of the following things? Given money to a charity? Over the past 5 years have contributed your time to help the needy?

Data from 2002 show that most individuals gave money to a charity in the year prior to the interview. Breakdown by social class shows the higher the social class, the greater the likelihood of giving. The responses for giving time to help the needy broke down in a similar way by social class. In addition, individuals were more likely to have given money in the past year than time in the past 5 years.

Given Money to Charity by Social Class %

	Lower	Working	Middle	Upper	Total
More Than Once a Week	3.5	1.1	3.3	4.9	2.4
Once a Week	4.7	7.1	9.2	9.8	8.0
Once a Month	7.1	16.1	23.2	24.4	19.0
At least 2 or 3 Times in Past Year	21.2	31.3	39.1	31.7	34.2
Not at All in Past Year	50.6	25.8	14.6	12.2	21.9

Time Given to Needy by Social Class %

	Lower	Working	Middle	Upper	Total
Yes	39.5	47.7	52.4	63.5	50.0
No	60.5	52.3	47.6	36.5	50.0

Discussion questions

1. Why do you think the social class differences shown above exist? It is easy to explain away by saying that richer people have more money to give to charity, and poor people need their money for basic necessities. What other sociological explanations can you come up with?
2. The differences among social classes for giving money to charity were much greater than the differences for contributing time to help the needy. What might explain that?
3. Many people reported not giving money and not giving time for charity. What are some commonly held stereotypes about the needy that might hold people back from giving, or at least give them justification for not giving?

Go to this website to look further at the data. You can run your own statistics and crosstabs here: <http://sda.berkeley.edu:7502/D3/GSS04/Doc/gs04.htm>.

Teaching Suggestions

Film

- *People Like Us: Social Class in America*: This two-hour PBS documentary explores social class in the United States in all its manifestations, from attitude to style to the foods we prefer to eat. It will help students better understand that class is more than just income and occupation, and it has an interactive companion website (see below) students can use along with viewing the film itself.
- *Homeless in Paradise*: This film documents the problem of homelessness in Santa Monica, California, by following four homeless people and exploring the reasons for their homelessness and their efforts to get help. The film helps students understand the range of reasons behind homelessness (including drug and alcohol addiction and mental illness) and the challenges cities face when they try to deal with the problem.
- *Born Rich*: This HBO Documentary directed by Jamie Johnson, heir to the Johnson & Johnson fortune, profiles the lives and experiences of extremely wealthy young people (the people Kimmel and Aronson call the mostly-invisible “super-rich”). The heirs and heiresses are frank about the difficulties in their lives, and the interviews also reveal clearly the racism and anti-Semitism, the snobbery, and other negative behaviors of the very wealthy. The film can be an effective way to explore the concept of meritocracy and the behaviors and experiences of the dominant group.
- *Roger and Me*: This early Michael Moore documentary presents the deterioration of Flint, Michigan after a series of General Motors layoffs and plant closures left much of the city unemployed. (Kimmel and Aronson mention Flint in their discussion of poor whites in this chapter of the text.) The film presents the problem as one of corporate greed, which provides students an opportunity to think critically about aspects of the

problem that the film does not address in addition to seeing clearly how a thriving city may very quickly decline into a state of poverty and violence.

- *Take It from Me: Life after Welfare:* This documentary follows four families in New York City dealing with the 1990s welfare reform that imposed time limits and work requirements as a condition for receiving welfare. The families demonstrate the range of reasons people end up on welfare (family emergency, unsupportive parents and teen pregnancy, lack of housing, mental illness, drug addiction) and a range of outcomes, as well as revealing the many problems with the social services offered to these families.

In-Class Activities

- *Poverty Line Exercise:* The authors briefly describe the problems with how the poverty line is calculated in the United States and contrast it to the “Dream Line.” Have students generate this information themselves to see whether they agree with the authors’ assessment that the poverty line is set well below the level of income a person or family could live on. As a class, generate a list of all the things people must purchase in order to live (food, clothing, medical care, transportation, housing, utilities, toiletries, child care, etc.). Put the students in small groups and assign each group a profile (single adult, one adult with two children, etc.). Ask each group to estimate the cost of each category of goods per month for that family, and then to add their numbers up to generate a total necessary after-tax annual income for that family. Then compare the students’ estimates with the federal poverty line for each family size. Discuss why the numbers are so different and the political and practical implications of changing the way we measure poverty.
- *Poverty Lunch:* Try Sheryl Tynes’s “poverty lunch” exercise, described in *Teaching Sociology*, Volume 29, Number 3, to give students a hands-on understanding of living with poverty and hunger.

Projects, Papers, and Homework Exercises

- *People Like Us Companion Website Activities:* Through the PBS website, find the companion website for the documentary film *People Like Us*, described above. Select activities for students to complete at this site and assign reflective responses to go with them. For example, they could play the interactive games and write a response paper discussing whether they believe the games accurately assessed their social class, and why or why not. Or, have students read one or more of the articles about social class on this site and write a summary and reaction to them. If you are not showing the film in class, you could also have students watch the short film clips included on the site and ask them to analyze the clips using information learned from the textbook, your lectures, or other material you have provided about social class.

- *Consumerism Records & Reflection:* One element of social class in the United States is our high level of consumption, particularly consumption undertaken for purposes of gaining or maintaining social status. Ask students to examine their own consumption patterns by keeping a log for a week of all the money they spend. Have them label each item they purchase as either a “need” or a “want” and to list the amount they spent on it. After the week is over, ask students to write a reflection about their level of spending (are they surprised at how much they spend, and on what?) and to analyze to what extent they are making “status” purchases. You might assign an excerpt from Juliet Schor’s book *The Overspent American*, to help students understand the causes and significance of overconsumption and status buying.
- *Personal Reflection Paper:* To help students more fully understand the text’s arguments about how much social class affects our lives, and about the rarity of social mobility, ask students to write a reflective paper in which they analyze how social class has affected their own lives, including how it affects their life chances and how it affects their sense of themselves (e.g., their taste in food or music or clothing). Ask them to include discussion of their family’s social class history so that they can discuss social mobility (or its absence) in their family.
- *Welfare State Research Project:* The authors briefly discuss the fact that most industrialized nations provide a much broader system of social welfare programs than the United States does. Either as individuals or in groups, ask students to investigate this issue further by choosing a country and researching its welfare programs. Be sure to remind students to think broadly about welfare, including child care, housing, education, health care, food support, and cash grants. Students could write up their findings in a paper or could present their findings to the class. Class discussion of the reports could then look for commonalities across the countries, discuss the pros and cons of having a more fully developed welfare state, and analyze why the United States takes such a different approach to welfare.

For Further Research & Reading

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Chapter Eight: Race and Ethnicity

Chapter Summary

In everyday life, we generally see race as a fixed, biological category. In contrast, sociologists see race as fluid, historically changing, and socially constructed. Race, like class and gender, is both a foundation for our identities and a basis for social inequality.

Sociologists distinguish between race and ethnicity, and also have a particular definition of “minority group” that differs from the way we use the term in everyday life. Although sociologists argue that pure, distinct biological races do not actually exist, we continue to study them because our society believes that they exist. As a result, our society organizes itself around those categories.

When studying race and ethnicity, sociologists study prejudice, stereotypes, racism, and discrimination. We examine how discrimination may take place on an individual or an institutional level, theories about why prejudice and discrimination exist, and ways of eliminating prejudice and discrimination. We also examine how and why ethnic groups so often battle over resources and even end up in violent conflicts with each other. In the United States, many ethnic minority groups are changing the face of America by advocating pluralism rather than assimilation. Race and ethnicity are likely to continue shaping our personal identities and our society well into the future, but in ever-changing ways.

Learning Objectives

- To be able to explain what sociologists mean when they argue that race is socially constructed, not biological.
- To be able to distinguish between race and ethnicity.
- To be able to distinguish between the everyday and the sociological definitions of minority group and majority group.
- To understand the definition of prejudice, stereotypes, and subtle and overt racism, and the relationships among them.
- To be able to define discrimination and to understand why prejudice and discrimination are not always connected.
- To be able to explain the various theories of prejudice and discrimination, as well as the criticism of those theories.
- To understand the factors and actions that do, and do not, reduce prejudice.
- To be able to discuss basic facts about the major ethnic groups in the United States.

- To understand why ethnic groups so often engage in conflict with each other.
- To be able to explain assimilation and why many ethnic minority groups today prefer pluralism instead of assimilation.

Chapter Outline

I. Introduction: We usually see race as a fixed, immutable, biological characteristic. Sociologists, in contrast, see it as fluid and historically changing, something that was invented by Europeans in the eighteenth century. We focus on how we have come to *see* race as fixed and universal. Once we learn to see a certain number of races, we see only those races. Further, we use those categories as the basis of how we perceive, reward, and punish people and as a justification for discrimination. Race is a foundation of identity and a basis for social inequality.

II. Distinguishing between Race and Ethnicity: These terms are often used interchangeably, but they are based on different assumptions. A *race* is a group defined by a biological distinction, while an *ethnicity* is a group defined by cultural distinction. Although neither race nor ethnicity has any empirical basis, they are the single most predictive factor in determining a person's eventual social position, including things like your tastes, how you vote, and your job. So race and ethnicity have a major impact on our lives even though they are not "real" categories.

A. What Is Race?

- We do not have a good definition of race. Most definitions refer to obvious biological characteristics, but this does not really answer the question, because it still leaves us to explain why certain biological differences are perceived in certain ways and assigned certain meanings in any given time and place. As a result, sociologists see race as a social construction, not a biological fact.
- Most cultures divide people into good ("us") and bad ("them") types, but these categories are rarely based on physical traits. "Race," for most of history, meant the same thing as "culture." In the eighteenth century, physical attributes became part of the definition of race, developing into "race science" in the nineteenth century that tried to rank races according to their stage of evolution. Race science is actually not correct; people are more physiologically similar than different, with physical traits varying more within each "racial group" than between them.
- Even though there are no distinct, pure races, sociologists still study race because since people believe there are races, we organize social life as though there are races.

B. Biraciality and Multiraciality

- There is no “pure” race because every human group has mixed ancestry. However, interracial relationships (called miscegenation) have been considered deviant and often have been punished. Mixed-race children, the product of these relationships, were considered inferior. Today, legal bans on interracial marriages have been eliminated and popular support for these relationships has greatly increased, although they are still stigmatized. Despite the stigma, there are a great number of biracial and multiracial children today and the population is growing. This growth may create a new ethnic category of its own.

III. The Sociology of Race and Ethnicity: Race and ethnicity are ways societies organize the allocation of goods and resources, a way of legitimizing social inequality. But they also give us a sense of identity, pride, and connection to people and institutions we feel linked to because of our race or ethnicity.

A. Minority Groups

- A racial or ethnic minority is not necessarily a numerical minority. In some cases, the “minority” group is not a numerical minority, and some numerical minorities are not “minority groups.” For a race or ethnic group to be classified as a minority group, it must have four characteristics: 1) differential power; 2) identifiability; 3) ascribed status; and 4) solidarity and group awareness.

B. Majority Groups

- The majority group identity (whiteness, maleness, or whatever) is generally not only privileged, but also invisible to the people who have it. It is seen as the norm.
- The category of “White people” is a result of political actions just as much as other racial or ethnic categories are. Certain groups were once defined as non-White, and were discriminated against on that basis. Groups were defined as White or non-White based on political considerations, such as fears about immigration at the start of the 20th century. These fears also led to the theory of eugenics and the teaching of “race science” as a way of justifying and explaining the inferiority of the target groups. Over time, however, these groups came to be categorized as White, in part because those groups gradually joined the middle class and in part because those groups carefully positioned themselves as allies and members of the White race and against other groups, like Blacks. The race science that had defined them as different also lost stature as it began to be associated with the actions of Nazi Germany. Americans began to focus on assimilation and the melting pot approach to dealing with immigration. European immigrants thus became “White

people,” although at a cost of losing most of their cultural heritage and traditions.

IV. Prejudice: Prejudice is a set of beliefs and attitudes that cause us to negatively “pre-judge” people based on their social location. It involves hostility toward an entire group or its individual members, and fulfills, according to Gordon Allport’s classic work on the subject, “a specific irrational function for its bearer.”

A. Stereotypes

- Prejudices are often based on stereotypes, which are generalizations about a group that are oversimplified and exaggerated and that fail to acknowledge individual differences in the group. Usually, we do not apply reason or logic to stereotypes; we just go about behaving as though they are true.
- In the past, people would often proclaim their stereotypes outright; today, they tend to be present more subtly and to be presented as cultural explanations rather than biological ones. Nonetheless, the stereotypes and their inaccuracies remain the same.
- People tend to believe in their stereotypes despite lack of supporting evidence and despite evidence to the contrary. When a stereotype seems to fail, people look for other explanations so they can continue to believe it.

B. Racism

- Racism is a set of attitudes—it is prejudice that is systematically applied to members of a group. It can be *overt racism* or *subtle racism* (including just unconscious categories we have about members of a certain group). Racism is not just the belief in stereotypes, but also the belief that one group (usually White) is superior to the other groups. Both White and non-White people may believe in the superiority of Whites.

V. Discrimination: Discrimination is a set of actions based on prejudice and stereotypes. They often, but not always, negatively affect the group in question. Acts of discrimination may be responses to specific stereotypes or may just take the form of general negative treatment. Prejudice and discrimination are not always connected; sometimes people who are not prejudiced participate in discriminatory acts just to go along with the crowd, and sometimes prejudiced people do not act on their feelings for the same reason. When thinking about this interaction, however, it is important to remember that prejudice and discrimination are more variable than this simple presentation might imply. Acts of discrimination, and prejudiced beliefs, are often subtle and unconscious. Discrimination and prejudice are not simply either present or not present.

A. Institutional Discrimination

- Institutional discrimination is the most subtle and pervasive type of discrimination, deeply embedded in our social institutions. These institutions promote discriminatory practices and traditions that have been around for so long that they just seem natural, and the result is that minority groups are discriminated against even when no one is actively trying to discriminate. Institutional discrimination is particularly a problem in the housing industry.

B. Segregation and Integration

- For much of United States history, racial *segregation* (separation of the racial groups) was legally required. The Supreme Court ruled that segregation was legal because as long as accommodations (schools, etc.) were “separate but equal,” discrimination was not taking place. In fact, however, separate always meant inferior. The *apartheid* system in South Africa was the most extreme version of the separate and inferior system. In the United States, the *Brown v. Board of Education* ruling in 1954 reversed the previous ruling, finding that separate was not equal and legally requiring racial *integration*. Although integration is now legally required, we still live in mostly race-segregated neighborhoods and schools.

C. Affirmative Action or “Reverse Discrimination”?

- President Johnson created affirmative action, asking employers to take steps to ensure that they were not discriminating against job applicants or employees. Affirmative action programs today are controversial, with some people arguing that they constitute “reverse discrimination” and are stealing jobs from White people. Supporters argue that White people, and particularly White men, have benefited from their own form of affirmative action, the pro-White biases in our society, for generations and that current affirmative action policies only seek to level the playing field. Affirmative action policies for college admissions continue to be contested in the courts.
- Affirmative action policies can sometimes lead to tokenism, in which one member of a minority group is present in an office, classroom, or other setting. This person is then treated not as an individual, but as a representative of her/his group, and any actions the individual takes are made into new stereotypes about that group.

D. Hate Groups

- People join hate groups to promote discrimination against ethnic and other minorities, usually because they feel that the main society is not doing so effectively. When open discrimination is acceptable in the society, hate groups can gain significant power, and when open discrimination is not

accepted, hate groups have more trouble gaining political influence. Today, hate groups usually focus on making themselves known, gaining individual support, and undertaking individual acts of discrimination (especially violence) rather than working on legislative change. They often use slick media presentations (books, music, etc.) to convey their racist beliefs and try to connect their beliefs to respectable things like science and religion. In addition to the actual participants and believers, hate groups also threaten racial equality by drawing attention away from more subtle forms of prejudice and discrimination, which pale in comparison to the actions of hate groups.

- Hate group membership is relatively low, but there has been a significant increase in violent hate crimes based on race and religion.

VI. Theories of Prejudice and Discrimination: Social scientists have offered various explanations for why we are prejudiced, and why we are prejudiced against certain groups and not others. The *primordial theory* suggests an innate conflict between in-groups and out-groups but does not explain how some groups become out-groups, and evidence does not show that we have an innate preference for people like us. The primordial theory also ignores the social and political forces that lead us to choose prejudice. *Frustration-aggression theory* suggests that people become frustrated when they cannot reach their goals and that when we cannot aggress against the cause of our frustration, we do so against a *scapegoat*. Evidence shows increased aggression against racial and ethnic minority groups at times of economic trouble, supporting this theory, but the theory does not explain why certain groups become targets. *Conflict theory* suggests that prejudice is a tool used by elites to divide the groups at the bottom from each other, thereby making them easier to control. It is also important to note that members of minority groups may encourage prejudice against other minority groups to try to increase their own wealth, power, etc. *Feminist theory* points out the overlap between race and other social categories (gender, sexual orientation, age, etc.) and notes that the stereotypes we have of all stigmatized social groups are very similar. These theorists analyze how the effects of racism are compounded by the effects of other inequalities, creating a *matrix of domination*.

A. Doing Something About It

- Early social scientists believed that prejudice could be eliminated by exposing people to members of the minority groups they had stereotypes about. Efforts like busing students to integrate schools, however, showed that contact was not enough to reduce prejudice. Further, even when people are aware of prejudice and want to change, this is not necessarily sufficient to reduce prejudice because you may still believe in the stereotypes and will notice and remember things that fit your stereotypes, regardless of your intentions.
- One reason prejudice is so difficult to eliminate is that prejudice is a *self-fulfilling prophecy*: we see what we expect to see, and don't see what we don't expect to see. This process "fulfills" our expectations and confirms our stereotypes.

B. Overcoming Prejudice

- Prejudice can be decreased when people of different groups work together toward a common goal, when there are strong role models that contradict stereotypes, and when institutional forms of discrimination that make inequality seem normal and natural decrease.
- There is also evidence to suggest that some people are just providing the socially acceptable answer to questions about racism and that causal or “backhanded” discrimination may be rising.

VII. Ethnic Groups in the United States: An ethnic group is a group whose norms, values, beliefs, practices, outlooks, and cultural artifacts set it apart from other groups, physically or culturally. You do not have a choice about the ethnicity you have, because you’re born into it, but people may choose “how ethnic” they want to be. Ethnic groups share a common ancestry, history, or culture, as well as similar geographic origins, languages, cultural traditions, religion, and general values. The United States is a nation of immigrants with many different origins.

A. People from Europe

- People from Europe are the largest ethnic group in the U.S. population (75%). Although we refer to European Americans at times, these groups have become so intermixed that we are really just referring to White people.

B. People from North America

- Native Americans (formerly called “Indians”) lived in North America in a range of settled and unsettled groups with a variety of languages and cultures when Europeans and Africans arrived here. Negative stereotypes of Native Americans were used to justify taking their land and restricting them to reservations or killing them. Native Americans now constitute 1.5% of the population, but many more people have some Native American ancestry. Many Native American tribes are now dying out, and Native Americans are worse off than any other minority groups in terms of poverty, suicide rate, and other measures.

C. People from Latin America

- 12.5% of the U.S. population is Latino/a, and Latinos are now the largest ethnic minority group in the United States. Immigration and high birth rates are causing significant growth in the Latino population. Latino people may be of any race, speak a variety of languages, and follow a variety of religions. They often prefer to be identified by their country of origin because of these differences. Latinos also have the most quickly growing affluence of any ethnic minority group. Latino/a characters increasingly play positive roles in the mass media.

D. People from Sub-Saharan Africa

- 12.5% of the U.S. population is Black/African American, with ancestry in sub-Saharan Africa. African Americans are the only group that immigrated to the United States against their will. African American is an ethnicity, and includes holidays, a distinctive dialect of English, and uniquely African American names. Contemporary immigrants from Africa would not be considered African American because they do not share this ethnicity. African Americans are often the focus of studies about race, seen as the “standard” minority. African Americans have made significant progress toward political and economic success but are still behind non-Hispanic whites in educational and income levels, crime victimization, positive media portrayals, and other factors.

E. People from East and South Asia

- 3.6% of the U.S. population is of East, Southeast, or South Asian origins. People with these backgrounds are often called Asian American, although this category lumps together people from quite varied countries, languages, and religions, and people from countries with historic (and current) conflicts between them, so many oppose this umbrella term. There are also significant ethnic differences within even the more specific terms like Chinese American. Asian Americans are often depicted as a “model minority” because Asian Americans often meet or surpass the achievements of Whites, unlike other ethnic minority groups. Scholars explain the relative success of Asian Americans as a result of the fact that they were often middle class in their home countries, that they are more likely than other immigrant groups to be fluent in English, that they are unlikely to live in segregated neighborhoods, that a significant proportion of Asian Americans intermarry with other races, and that in a society that privileges light skin, they are relatively light skinned.

F. People from the Middle East

- People from the Middle East are not counted separately on the census, but about two million people in the U.S. have Middle Eastern or North African ancestry. Participants in the early waves of immigration from this region tended to be assimilationist, while more recent immigrants tend to want to preserve their identity as Muslims. These immigrants also tend to be seen as a “model minority” and are highly educated and receive high incomes overall. However, stereotypes about Middle Easterners are more extreme, and more readily believed, than stereotypes about other minority groups. Prejudice and discrimination against people of Middle Eastern backgrounds have increased significantly since the 9/11 terrorist attacks.

VIII. Ethnicity and Conflict: Ethnic identity is fluid and is stronger at some times than at others. For people with ethnicities that are not the targets of prejudice and discrimination, ethnicity is a situational choice, played up when it will benefit them and ignored when it will not. Or ethnicity may become symbolic, just something for special occasions like St. Patrick's Day. New ethnicities can also emerge over time, like the creation of the African American ethnicity. When several ethnic groups live together in one nation, they often compete over power and resources, so ethnic conflict is common worldwide. Ethnic conflict may include discrimination, violence, civil war, and genocide (the planned, systematic destruction of a racial, political, or cultural group). Heterogeneity seems to reduce the likelihood of serious ethnic conflict; that is, in countries with many ethnic groups, it is less likely that one group will come to dominate or be able to define another group as enemies. Further, societies that give full rights and privileges to minorities (e.g., participation in politics) have less group conflict over resources.

A. Melting Pot (Assimilation) and Multiculturalism (Pluralism)

- America is often described as a melting pot, where all groups come together into a new combination. However, the dominant group is rarely willing to lose its characteristics to join a new mix, so minority groups actually *assimilate* (nearly abandoning their cultural traditions altogether and embracing the dominant culture). Only a few small aspects of their traditions (usually foods or a few words) become part of the dominant culture. Further, only certain groups (those considered White) were allowed to assimilate into the dominant culture at all.
- Some immigrants did not want to assimilate because they did not want to lose their own customs, language, and other cultural traits. Assimilation seemed to make more sense when it was difficult or impossible to return to or communicate with their countries of origin, but today, people can regularly communicate with and travel to those countries, making it even more important to maintain their language and traditions. Many minority groups thus proposed *pluralism* as an alternative to assimilation, arguing that we could create an equally stable society in which multiple ethnic groups live together in mutual respect even while maintaining distinct traditions. When it is stable, pluralism becomes multiculturalism, with diverse groups living side by side. Usually, however, one group's language and customs end up dominating.

B. Bilingualism

- Under the assimilation model, immigrants were expected to learn English. Now, many immigrants, particularly Spanish-speaking ones, want to maintain their native languages. This emphasis has led to controversy and to the passage of laws making English the official language in some states.

IX. Race and Ethnicity in the 21st Century

Key Terms from Chapter Eight

affirmative action: programs and policies developed to ensure that qualified minority group members are not discriminated against in the workplace, school admission, and the like. Affirmative action policies generally apply to race, ethnicity, and gender, among other categories (p. 237).

apartheid: a system that institutionalized and legalized inferiority, mandating the segregation of different racial groups (p. 237).

assimilation: occurs when two groups come into contact and the minority group abandons their traditional culture to embrace the dominant culture (p. 251).

discrimination: a set of actions based on prejudice and stereotypes (p. 234).

ethnic groups: a group that is set apart from other groups by language and cultural traditions. Ethnic groups share a common ancestry, history, or culture (p. 242).

ethnicity: social category that depends on an assumption of inherent cultural differences to rate and organize social groups (p. 224).

genocide: the planned, systematic destruction of a racial, political, or ethnic group (p. 250).

in-group: term coined by William Graham Sumner (1906) for the “us” in an “us” and “them” division of the social world (p. 228).

institutional discrimination: the most subtle and pervasive type of discrimination, it is deeply embedded in such institutions as the educational system, the business world, health care, criminal justice, and the mass media. These social institutions promote discriminatory practices and traditions that have such a long history they just “seem to make sense,” and minority groups become the victims of systematic oppression, even when only a few people, or none at all, are deliberately trying to discriminate (p. 236).

integration: the physical intermingling of the races organized as a concerted legal and social effort to bring equal access and racial equality through racial mixing in institutions and communities (p. 237).

majority group: a group whose members experience privilege and access to power because of their group membership. With regard to race, lighter-colored skin usually means membership in the majority group (p. 228).

matrix of domination: an interlocking system of control in which each type of inequality reinforces the others, so that the impact of one cannot be fully understood without also considering the others (p. 240).

minority group: a group one is born into, which has a distinguishable identity and whose members have less power and access to resources than other groups in society because of that group membership (p. 228).

out-group: term coined by William Graham Sumner (1906) for the “them” in the “us” and “them” division of the social world (p. 228).

overt racism: systematic prejudice applied to members of a group in clear, manifest ways, such as speech, discrimination, or a refusal to associate with members of that group (p. 234).

pluralism: maintains that different groups in a stable society can treat each other with mutual respect and that minority cultures can maintain their own distinctiveness and still participate in the greater society without discrimination (p. 252).

prejudice: a set of beliefs and attitudes that cause us to negatively pre-judge people based on their social location (p. 231).

race: social category, still poorly defined, that depends on an assumption of biological distinction to rate and organize social groups (p. 224).

racism: a particularly powerful form of prejudice that includes not only a belief in general stereotypes but also a belief that one race (usually White) is inherently superior to the others. Racism is a prejudice that is systematically applied to members of a group (p. 234).

scapegoat: a convenient, weak and socially approved target for economic or social loss or insecurity (p. 240).

segregation: the practice of physically separating Whites from other races by law and custom in institutions and communities (p. 236).

stereotype: generalizations about a group that are oversimplified and exaggerated and that fail to acknowledge individual differences in the group (p. 231).

subtle racism: systematic prejudice applied to members of a group in quiet or even unconscious ways; a simple set of mental categories that one may possess about a group based on stereotypes (p. 234).

tokenism: when a single member of a minority group is present in an office, workplace, or classroom and is seen as a representative of that minority group rather than as an individual (p. 238).

Key People from Chapter Eight

W. E. B. DuBois: Important African American sociologist who argued that “the problem of the twentieth century is the problem of the color line” (p. 247-248).

Richard Herrnstein and Charles Murray: Scholars whose controversial book *The Bell Curve* argued that intelligence is correlated with race (p. 233).

Try-It Exercise: The Media and Racial and Ethnic Relationships (does not appear in text)

OBJECTIVE: Use sociology to think about the ways race and ethnic relationships are portrayed in the media.

STEP 1: Collect Data

To collect some data, plan to watch one hour of television.

Your best bet is to watch one of the major networks like ABC, NBC, or CBS. Unlike much of cable broadcasting, these three networks are specifically designed to target a larger audience. Record the date and time you watched television. For each television show or commercial you observe during this one-hour period, record the number of characters portrayed by their racial/ethnic heritage. In other words, how many White people appeared? How many African Americans? What other groups were portrayed? You may also want to note gender and social class for a more detailed analysis. List not only the shows but also the commercials during this time period. Take notes on a separate piece of paper and then transfer the totals to a grid like the one on the next page. Be sure to include the following information in your final results:

Your name:

Date and time you completed project:

Name of network:

How many television shows did you watch during this period?

List the name of the show(s):

How many commercials?

List the products sold in each commercial:

1. Number of people or characters from each category
2. The central figure, star, leader, or most important person in each scene
3. The “bad guy,” criminal, or other person shown in a negative role
4. The number in each category appearing as wealthy or of higher social class
5. The number of females in each category
6. The number of males in each category
7. The number in each category appearing as poor or lower social class
8. The number in each category interacting with members of a different racial/ethnic category
9. The number of times shown in nonstereotypical roles
10. The number in each category appearing as the “good guy” or good person

	African American	White	Other/Note the Ethnicity
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			

STEP 2: Evaluate

Think about what your results have to say about the issues of prejudice, discrimination, and institutional discrimination. Did you notice patterns? If so, please explain. If you do not notice any patterns, you may need to extend the time period of your television viewing.

STEP 3: Discussion

Be prepared to share your results in class.

Instructor’s Notes: This activity requires some time outside of class to watch television. This activity is a good opportunity to discuss the intersections of race, class, and gender. You may also want to add a question about sexual orientation of character shown to add to the dimensions explored in this activity. This activity could be adjusted to include physical ability, weight, religion, etc. It is often a good way to help students understand “invisible” minority issues. Often students note the blatant differences but fail to note all the groups missing on television. You may want to create your own template for this activity that can be copied and made available to students as a handout. This activity could also be used as part of a larger class project and the data could be coded and analyzed in SPSS. It would be another way to help integrate data analysis into the classroom.

Try It Exercise: Thinking about the Census and Race (does not appear in text)

Submitted by Katherine R. Rowell, Sinclair Community College

OBJECTIVE: This activity will help you understand complex nature of the words race and ethnicity in the United States by exploring how the United States Census has approached this issue historically and in the present.

STEP 1: After reading the chapter on race and ethnicity in your textbook, go to the following address and watch the PBS program “*Matters of Race*” (you will only be watching the first part of program 4 entitled “*Every Other*.”

<http://www.pbs.org/mattersofrace/prog4-1.shtml>

After watching this segment, answer the following questions (You will want to write these on a separate sheet of paper):

1. What happened for the first time in the 2000 Census?
2. What are the positives of this approach in understanding racial/ethnic identity in the United States?
3. What are some of the potential problems with this approach noted in the film?
4. Overall, what do you the results of the 2000 Census may have shown?
5. What percentage of Americans do you think indicated they were bi-racial? Multi-racial? Explain your thoughts.
6. What state would you expect to see the largest percentage of multi-racial people? What state would have the least? Explain your thoughts.

STEP 2: Examining the Results from the 2000 Census

You will to go the following website: www.censusscope.org (the specific addresses are noted below. Please answer the questions using each of the addresses noted.)

1. Overall, what percentage of Americans are bi-racial? Multi-racial? Did the results surprise you? Why or Why not?

http://www.censusscope.org/us/chart_multi.html

2. How did the States rank? What 5 states had the most multi-racial? What 5 states had the least? Did these results surprise you? Why or Why not?

http://www.censusscope.org/us/rank_multi.html

STEP 3: Write a paragraph about why you think the results were lower than what had been expected by many demographers. Why do you think very few people noted that they were either bi-racial or multi-racial? What does this suggest about race and ethnicity in the United States? Finally, what do you think will happen with this issue in the 2010 census and why? Be prepared to turn in your responses and share them in class.

Instructor’s Notes: This activity does require access to a computer and would work well as an out of class assignment. This activity can be adapted to use in the classroom. You may want to print out the data ahead of class and have it in handout form for the students to save time. The

video clip can be accessed for free and can also be shown in class. The video clip is a very important connection for this activity. It is very useful in helping students understand the debate at a more personal level. The most important part of this activity is the classroom discussion and helping students understand the issues of racial identity formation in the United States. It is also another good opportunity to discuss some of the issues with research by discussing problems surrounding how to ask questions and what happens when respondents are forced to make choices in surveys. There are numerous sources available on this issue and it may be a good class debate. Here are a few sources that explore the issue further:

<http://www.demography.state.mn.us/Cen2000redistricting/Cen00racediscuss.html>

<http://www.census.gov/population/www/socdemo/race/racefactcb.html>

<http://www.soc.washington.edu/users/charles/pubs/15%20pop%20studies%20book%20review.pdf>

Try It Exercise: Comparing and Contrasting How Sociologists and Psychologists Think About Race and Ethnicity (does not appear in text)

OBJECTIVE:

This activity will provide an opportunity for you to examine the nature of prejudice and stereotypes through an understanding of the academic disciplines of both sociology and psychology.

STEP 1: Review the chapter on race and ethnicity before starting this project. This project uses a series of tests developed by psychologists at Harvard, the University of Virginia, and the University of Washington who created “Project Implicit” to develop hidden bias tests called Implicit Association Tests to measure unconscious bias. Thus, the tests are more “psychology” than sociology however they can be very useful in helping you think about the nature of prejudice in the United States. You will want to start this assignment by reading over the information developed by Teaching Tolerance. It is important to compare and contrast this information to that provided in the textbook. After reading over the information on this web page please answer the questions provided below:

http://www.tolerance.org/hidden_bias/tutorials/index.html

1. How is this information similar to presented that in your textbook?
2. How is this information different from that provided in your textbook?
3. What do you think about the explanation for how we learn to be biased? How does this compare to the chapter on socialization? Be specific in your responses.

Please note that your instructor may require you to write you responses to the above questions and turn them in.

STEP 2: The first step is to read over the following website and take the implicit association tests required by your instructor. There are several to choose from and your instructor will give you further directions on which tests are required. To do this correctly takes some time. Please allow

at least twenty minutes to complete one test. If you try to rush through a test, you will receive an error message at the end of the test. You will have to register in order to take the test. Registration directions are on the website.

<https://implicit.harvard.edu/implicit/research/>

Some instructors may choose to use a different version of the implicit association test for prejudice. Another version that may be assigned can be found at the following website. It is easier to complete and requires less registration time. Your instructor may also have you take both and compare results.

<http://www.understandingprejudice.org/iat/index2.htm>

STEP 3: Take the test(s) and print out final result page.

When you are done with the test be sure to print out the page with your final results (Some instructors may have different directions for how to turn in results so be sure to follow directions given to you by your instructor).

STEP 4: Digging Deeper into the Issues

After completing steps 1-3, reflect for a moment about your results and answer the following questions. Be sure to write out your answers and be prepared to share in class.

4. Were you surprised by your results? Why or Why not?
5. What do these tests help you understand about the similarities and differences in how sociology and psychology understand prejudice? Be specific.
6. What do you think about “prejudice”? Explore this issue in depth by thinking about the questions at the website below and be prepared to participate in a class discussion. Please note that your instructor may be using these questions in class.

<http://www.understandingprejudice.org/teach/stereosb.htm>

Instructor’s Notes: Students enjoy taking the implicit association tests. The tests can take longer than twenty minutes and it is probably best to assign the “test taking” as part of an out of class assignment. You can request that students bring test results to class with them. There are numerous tests available on the website and you will want to be specific about what tests the students should take. There are numerous types of discussions for follow up to the test results. Malcolm Gladwell (author of *Blink*) was recently on the Oprah Winfrey show and the transcripts of that particular episode are very helpful to read (see list of websites). This activity can be used to discuss the field of social psychology as well as to discuss experiments and this type of research. You may want to assign additional readings prior to class discussion of this topic. One interesting point made by the Harvard researchers who developed the test is that we all have prejudices. This particular point may be interesting to explore and debate in class. It is recommended that you become familiar with some of the research on implicit association tests prior to discussing in class. Many teachers combine the implicit association tests with the Oscar

winning feature film *Crash* for a more in depth discussion. Here are some resources to consider for this particular assignment:

http://www2.oprah.com/tows/slide/200706/20070606/slide_20070606_284_113.jhtml

[http://faculty.washington.edu/agg/IATmaterials/PDFs/Karpinski&Hilton.JPSP\(2001\).pdf](http://faculty.washington.edu/agg/IATmaterials/PDFs/Karpinski&Hilton.JPSP(2001).pdf)

<http://health.usnews.com/usnews/health/articles/051226/26spirit.race.htm>

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (does not appear in text)

Neighborhood Segregation

As illustrated by the Jim Crow laws in the South in the mid 20th century, the United States has a history of “separate but equal” policies. Everything from lunch counters to schools to neighborhoods were segregated. The Civil Rights movement made great strides toward integration, with advocates claiming that separate was not equal and that all Americans deserved the same services and treatment. Current fair housing laws try to safeguard against people being shut out of neighborhoods due to race, but race-based neighborhood segregation still occurs regularly due to both institutionalized and individual racism. So, what do you think?

Please respond to the following statement: White people have the right to keep black people out of their neighborhoods if they want to, and black people should respect that right.

- a. Agree Strongly
- b. Agree Slightly
- c. Disagree Slightly
- d. Disagree Strongly

(Actual Survey Data from the General Social Survey, 2004 Cumulative data)

Please respond to the following statement: White people have the right to keep black people out of their neighborhoods if they want to, and black people should respect that right.

Seventy-five percent of respondents disagreed either slightly or strongly. Almost eighty percent of black respondents disagreed strongly, as opposed to forty-five percent of white respondents. Only about eleven percent of respondents agreed strongly.

Segregated Neighborhood by Race %

Perception of Conflict by Race %

	White	Black	Other	Row Total
Agree Strongly	12.6	4.2	6.7	11.4
Agree Slightly	14.9	6.1	12.1	13.8
Disagree Slightly	26.9	10.9	23.2	24.8
Disagree Strongly	45.5	78.8	58.0	50.0

Discussion Questions

1. Why do you think ten percent of black respondents agreed that white people should be allowed to keep black people out and that black people should respect that right? Do you think those same individuals feel that black people should be able to keep white people out of their neighborhoods?
2. How do you think responses to this question would differ by social class? By geographical region? How would you explain those potential differences?
3. Seventy-five percent of respondents disagreed with white-imposed neighborhood segregation. What percent of respondents do you think would have disagreed had this survey been given in 1850? In 1950? Explain your answers.

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (p. 252)***The Melting Pot***

(Actual Survey Data from the General Social Survey, 2004)

Some people say that it is better for a country if different racial and ethnic groups maintain their distinct customs and traditions. Others say that it is better if these groups adapt and blend into the larger society. Which of these views comes closer to your own?

The responses to this question were split almost in half. Slightly more than fifty percent of respondents thought it was better if groups adapted and blended into the larger society. White respondents were more likely to think that than were black respondents, and those who identified as other race were least likely to feel groups should assimilate.

Table: Assimilation by Race %

	White	Black	Other	Row Total
Better To Maintain Distinct Customs	44.6	47.2	54.3	45.5
Better if Groups Adapt and Blend	55.4	52.8	45.7	54.5

Discussion questions

1. Why do you think there were only very small differences in responses by racial classification?
2. Should individuals and groups be forced to assimilate? Why or why not?
3. In many areas of the world, the question of assimilation and group difference leads to civil war, and even genocide. Why do you think that does not happen in the contemporary United States?

Teaching Suggestions

Film

- *The Eye of the Storm*: This ABC News special from the 1970s shows the famous Jane Elliott “experiment” in which she divided a classroom of third-grade children into “brown-eyes” and “blue-eyes” to teach them to understand racism and prejudice. It shows how easily we can learn to discriminate against others on whatever basis we are told to value and therefore helps illustrate the social construction of race.
- *In Whose Honor? American Indian Mascots in Sports*: This film explores the use of Native American-based team names and mascots in college and professional sports, focused most centrally on the controversy about Chief Illiniwek at the University of Illinois. Through interviews with activists, the film clearly demonstrates how the use of these names and mascots harms Native American people and helps students understand the importance of media portrayals of ethnic groups.
- *Skin Deep*: This powerful film shows a weekend retreat that brought together college students from a variety of ethnic backgrounds to honestly discuss race and racism. It is useful in getting students started on confronting views they disagree with or have not been exposed to before.
- *Ghosts of Rwanda*: This powerful two-hour film about the world’s failure to intervene in the genocide in Rwanda will help students understand genocide (and severe ethnic conflict more generally), as well as helping them explore the role of the United States, the United Nations, and other nations in responding to ethnic conflict. It includes some overview of the genocide but focuses mostly on exploring how different governments and international agencies failed to intervene, and why.

In-Class Activities

- *Discussion of Merton’s Typology*: The authors describe Robert Merton’s typology of prejudice and discrimination. In class, remind students of the four types (perhaps making them into a chart to help visual learners understand them, with prejudiced/not prejudiced as one axis and discriminates/does not discriminate as the other axis). Ask students to generate examples (from their experiences, from books or movies, etc.) to illustrate each of the four types. Then discuss which type of person students think is most common in the United States today, and why. Also discuss how strategies to eliminate prejudice and discrimination might need to be different depending on which part of the typology the person’s beliefs and behaviors fall into. (Merton’s original article on this typology discusses this last point and can provide you with specific ideas to share with the class.)
- *White Privilege Discussion*: The core of the article “White Privilege and Male Privilege: A Personal Account of Coming to See Correspondences through Working in Women’s Studies,” referenced below, is a list of privileges White people receive every day in a racist society. They range from the fairly minor (finding band-aids that match your skin

color) to the significant (learning in school that people like you have contributed something great to society). Have the class read, or read to the class, this list. Have students ask questions about items they don't understand, share experiences that validate particular items, raise questions about items they disagree with, and discuss whether they think that White privilege has a significant effect on the daily lives of White people and people of color.

Projects, Papers, and Homework Exercises

- *Race Interview:* Ask students to select a person of a different racial/ethnic background from their own and to interview that person about her or his experiences as a member of that racial/ethnic group. Encourage students to plan in advance a series of questions that explore a range of experiences, including experiences of discrimination, everyday life experiences, cultural practices and values, and attitudes toward various racial issues (racial profiling, affirmative action, etc.). Have students write a reflective paper after the interview in which they both report what they learned from their interviewee and also discuss how the interview confirmed or disconfirmed their expectations about what a person of this racial/ethnic background would have experienced and how such a person would view racial issues.
- *Comfort Zone Assignment:* As the authors discuss in this chapter, much of our daily lives (such as where we live or who we go to school with) is racially segregated. Ask students to break out of that "comfort zone" by going somewhere where they will be in a racial minority. For White students, this could be anywhere mainly populated by people of color, such as a Black church or an ethnic festival. For students of color, since much of their lives involve going places where they are a minority surrounded by White people, they should select a site populated by members of another racial or ethnic minority group. Ask students to share their experiences in a reflective paper and/or in class discussion, discussing how they felt in this setting and why, and what it might be like to be an ethnic minority in much of one's daily life.

For Further Research & Reading

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Chapter Nine: Sex and Gender

Chapter Summary

Gender difference and gender inequality define every society in some way, so understanding them is essential. In studying gender, sociologists distinguish between sex (a biological category) and gender (the social meaning assigned to the biological differences). Although people often assume that gender differences and inequality are natural and inevitable, there are significant problems with explaining gender in this way. Gender varies cross-culturally, over time, within a society, and over the life course, and this variation suggests that gender cannot be purely biological. It is most effective to examine how culture and biology affect each other.

We learn the behaviors, attitudes, and traits of our gender through gender socialization, which creates our gender identities. Gender identities are best understood as plural—there is not just one masculinity and one femininity, but rather, multiple masculinities and femininities defined by the intersections of gender with many other social categories, such as race, class, sexuality, age, and region. Gender socialization takes place over the entire course of our lives, including how we are treated in our families, our schooling, and our experiences in gendered institutions like the workplace. Sociologists call this process the social construction of gender.

Gender inequality is a worldwide phenomenon. It affects women in developing countries severely, but is also a continuing problem for women in industrialized nations, including the United States. Worldwide, the feminization of poverty and the global sex trade are two major concerns. In the U.S., the gendered nature of work (including the continued existence of the gender wage gap and the glass ceiling), of schooling, and of intimate life are major elements of gender inequality.

Both men and women have made efforts to fight restrictive gender roles and gender inequality. The feminist movement has been the most central effort toward this goal and currently includes three major branches: liberal, radical, and multicultural feminism.

Learning Objectives

- To understand the difference between sex and gender and the importance of this distinction in sociology.
- To be able to explain how gender is shaped by both nature and nurture and to identify problems with studying gender from a purely biological perspective.
- To understand and be able to provide examples of how gender varies cross-culturally, over time, within a society, and over the life course, and to explain why this variation is important.

- To understand the importance of studying gender as plural and focusing on intersectionality.
- To be able to explain how we learn our gender identities through gender socialization, the social construction of gender, and our participation in gendered institutions.
- To be able to describe the various forms of gender inequality in the U.S. and worldwide, including the feminization of poverty, the gendered nature of the global economy, the global sex trade, and the gendered nature of work, education, and intimate relationships in the U.S.
- To be able to describe both men's and women's opposition to traditional gender roles and gender inequality, including defining feminism and being able to distinguish among the three major types of feminism.

Chapter Outline

I. Introduction

- We commonly assume that men and women are extremely different, even opposite from each other, but in reality, gender differences and gender similarities coexist and define our world.
- Gender is a central social identity. Every society classifies people by gender, attaches particular roles to each gender, assumes men and women are different in at least some ways, and is defined by some form of gender inequality.
- Explaining gender difference and gender inequality is essential. While people assume they exist because of natural differences, sociologists believe that they are not natural because they vary so much.

II. Sex and Gender: Nature *and* Nurture

- Sociologists distinguish between *sex* (the biology of maleness and femaleness) and *gender* (the meaning that societies give to the fact of biological difference).
- Gender varies in four key ways:
 1. Gender varies from culture to culture (different cultures have different expectations for men and women)
 2. Definitions of gender change over time (expectations for men and women were different in the past than they are now)
 3. Definitions of gender vary within a society (expectations for men and women may be different based on race, religion, region, age, sexuality, class, etc.)
 4. Gender varies over the life course (ideas about masculinity and femininity are different for different age groups)

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- Sociology's particular contribution to studying how gender varies is its focus on gender variations within a society—in particular, examining *gender identity* and how it is affected by other social identities. We call this the study of the *intersections* of social identities, which leads sociologists to study multiple *masculinities* and *femininities*. This focus reveals that differences among men or among women are often larger than differences between men and women. It also reveals that because of the plurality of gender identities, other social conflicts (e.g., racial conflict) may be played out in gender terms.
- Sociologists also focus on the study of *gender inequality*, which includes the domination of men over women (*patriarchy*) and the domination of some men over other men and some women over other women (one definition of masculinity or femininity dominates and serves as the standard against which all men and women must measure themselves). Those in the dominant groups receive more of the society's power and resources.

III. The Biology of Sex and Gender: Most everyday explanations of gender identity and gender inequality attribute the differences to biology (nature) and argue that since the differences are natural, they are also inevitable and should not be changed. These arguments rest on the research described below. Sociological arguments about sex and gender generally oppose this perspective.

A. Evolutionary Imperatives

- It is the goal of all living things, according to this view, to reproduce themselves, and the differences and inequalities we now see between men and women are the result of evolutionary adaptation (changes in our behavior in order to better ensure that we can reproduce). Men's reproductive strategy is to inseminate as many females as possible, since his role in reproduction ends at ejaculation; this leads men to be aggressive, interested in casual sex, and uninterested in commitment. Women's reproductive strategy, since they cannot produce many offspring at once, is to have one successful mating and then nurture the child through birth and childhood; this leads women to be nurturing, passive, and commitment-seeking.
- The key problem with these evolutionary arguments is that they begin with current human behavior and then reason backward, using data selectively and ignoring some other "natural" behaviors. In fact, the same data can be used to provide an entirely different explanation.

B. Brain and Hormone Research

- Some research indicates that males are more right-brained (which means better visual and spatial skills) and females more left-brained (better language and reading skills) and that the separation between the two hemispheres of the brain is more pronounced in males. It is not clear what this really means in

terms of male or female behavior, and in general, brain research has been inconclusive.

- Some theorists believe that the sex hormones (testosterone and estrogen) responsible for the *primary and secondary sex characteristics* might explain broader male/female differences. The effects, however, are complex. For example, while testosterone does increase aggression as is commonly assumed, aggressive behavior also increases testosterone. Because of these complexities, it is best to examine both nature and nurture, or the ways biology and culture interact, rather than to try to explain gender identity or gender inequality by studying biology alone.

IV. Exploring Cross-Cultural Variations of Sex and Gender: One key way that sociologists demonstrate that sex differences are not biologically determined is to examine cross-cultural differences in the definitions of masculinity and femininity. Margaret Mead's *Sex and Temperament in Three Primitive Societies* was an essential early contribution to this understanding, documenting societies with very different ideas than our own about gender. Importantly, Mead points out that each society believes its gender system is natural, but each one is just as culturally constructed as the next.

A. The Value of Cross-Cultural Research

- Cross-cultural research allows us to examine both the universality of gender difference across cultures and the great variation in cultural beliefs about masculinity, femininity, and proper relations between men and women. It asks how much inequality a culture has, how different that culture believes men and women are, and whether there is any room for change (because given how much gender identity and gender inequality vary, they can also be changed).
- There are two cultural universals with regard to gender: the gendered division of labor and gender inequality.
 1. The gendered division of labor means that different tasks are assigned to men and women and that the tasks assigned to men are considered more valuable and receive more rewards. Sociologists once believed the gendered division of labor was functional (it just made sense to divide work from home life and for women to care for the home since they needed to be available for nursing babies), but further research indicates that early societies were much more cooperative than this and men and women shared most roles. Today, women have joined all aspects of public life so the gendered division of labor does not follow the old model.
 2. There are several theories that attempt to explain why every society has gender inequality. Engels argues that the development of private

property led to the simultaneous creation of male domination as a way of ensuring that a man's property passed only to his own children. Others argue that the arrival of a market economy leads to increased gender inequality, or that warfare, led by men, leads men to take over control of the society as a whole.

3. Several factors seem to determine women's status in a society: (a) the more a society needs and values physical size and strength, the greater the gender inequality; (b) smaller family sizes tend to mean greater gender equality because men and women do each other's tasks more often; (c) greater economic autonomy for women (e.g., control of property) means less gender inequality; and (d) women's status is lower in societies where they are entirely responsible for child care.

B. Blurring the Boundaries of Gender

- Cross-cultural research also challenges the male/female, masculine/feminine dichotomy by demonstrating that some cultures recognize three or four genders. These roles (like the *nadle* among the Navajo, or the *berdache* in many other Native American societies) are often respected and revered in their societies.

V. Becoming Gendered: Learning Gender Identity: Nearly every aspect of our society, from the major social institutions to the elements of everyday life, is organized to teach us our gender identities. These differences lead to both biological and cultural differences between males and females.

A. Gender Socialization

- Gender socialization is the process by which males and females are taught the appropriate behaviors, attitudes, and traits for their biological sex. It lasts from birth (at which point boy and girl infants are immediately treated differently) through our entire lives. Children are given different toys and other activities based on their sex, their behavior is interpreted and responded to differently depending on their sex, and boys and girls are increasingly separated over the course of childhood, allowing the development of further gender difference as well as the establishment of gender inequality.
- We tend to think of gender identity as a marked difference, even oppositeness, between men and women, even though research shows we are quite similar psychologically and behaviorally.

B. The Social Construction of Gender

- The social construction of gender means that we construct our gender identities all through our lives, using the cultural materials we find around us. The gender identities we create through this process are both voluntary and coerced.
- Gender socialization is constant and pervasive, which provides further evidence that gender differences are not natural (if they were, it would not be necessary for a society to do so much to create those identities).
- Gender identity can also be seen as a performance. We work hard to learn how to enact our gender identity appropriately when we interact with others, using our bodies, language, and actions.
- Psychologists use the term *gender role* (a bundle of traits, attitudes, and behaviors associated with biological males or females) to describe gender identities. Sociologists point out that the gender role model seems to indicate equality between two independent roles, but masculinity and femininity rely on each other for their mutual definition, and they are not equal. Finally, gender identity and behavior is complex, and “gender role” does not capture that complexity, just as it would not be effective to discuss “race roles” or “class roles.”
- There is also an institutional level to gender. Gender is a part of all our interactions, so it is also part of the institutions and organizations we take part in. For example, the ways we are expected to act in our work roles (e.g., soldier, nurse) are gendered expectations; the roles are assigned masculine or feminine expectations regardless of whether the person filling the role is male or female, and this can help explain why certain roles are predominately filled by men or women. Further, the ways gender is inscribed into our institutions is one basis of gender inequality.

VI. Gender Inequality on a Global and Local Scale:

- Discrimination against women is a major and widespread problem in developing countries. Women have much lower literacy, education, employment, income, and health status; they are disproportionately represented among the poor; they often do not have rights to inheritance, land ownership, and other vital resources; and they have little influence over private or public decision-making.
- Discrimination against women in industrialized countries is also a significant problem. Many industrialized nations, including the United States, ranked poorly in providing women with equal opportunities for economic and political participation, education, and health and well-being.

- Women and their families in the U.S. suffer in particular from the *gender wage gap* (the gap between the average wages for women and for men) and the worldwide problem, apparent in the U.S. as well, of the *feminization of poverty*. Women of color in the U.S. are even worse off on most indicators because gender inequality is compounded by racial inequality; recent immigrants fare worse still.
- The global division of labor, in which companies are traveling around the world to find the cheapest labor possible, is becoming a gendered phenomenon, as women and children generally provide the cheapest labor. The global economy has also led many men and women to migrate to wealthier countries to find work, often leading men and women to live separately. The global sex trade is another new form of male domination of women and girls.
- The status of women varies significantly between countries, even between countries with the same economic status or dominant religion. It may also vary between regions within the same country.

VII. Gender Inequality in the United States: Gender inequality is evident in every aspect of our lives in the U.S., including our participation in major social institutions and the intimate aspects of our daily lives.

A. The Gendered World of Work

- Despite all the changes in the workforce in the past century, we still have clear ideas about what work men and women should do, and there are still certain occupations nearly completely filled by men or by women.
- We also still hold beliefs that successful women are not “real women” and that successful men are “real men.” These beliefs lead to lower pay, fewer promotions and opportunities, and gender-based job assignments for women.
- Gender discrimination in the workplace was more obvious and direct in the past, including separate male/female want ads and explicit bars against women taking certain jobs.
- Gender inequality is sustained in the workplace today mainly through *sex segregation* (women’s and men’s concentration in different occupations, industries, jobs, and levels in workplace hierarchies). Sex segregation hides the fact that gender discrimination (particularly in wages) is occurring, and it creates a “dual labor market” based on gender in which women and men rarely even compete with each other for the same jobs.
- When women begin entering a profession in significant numbers, salaries drop. Sociologists call this the *feminization of the professions*.

- Women make less money than men, and women of color do worse than white women. The gap is larger at the management level. Women also face a significant salary reduction as a result of taking time out of the workforce. The wage gap has stayed very consistent over time, even back to biblical times as well as throughout American history. The gap has been closing recently, but women still earn only 70% of what men earn. The improvement we have seen has resulted not from increases in women's wages, but rather, from declines in men's wages.
- Gender inequality in the workplace is also affected by gender discrimination in promotions. Women may encounter a *glass ceiling* (an artificial barrier beyond which they cannot go even though they can see others above them in the organization) which prevents them from advancing at the workplace despite their qualifications. The glass ceiling continues to exist partly because of stereotypes about ambitious women. Men who enter female-dominated professions may experience the opposite effect, riding a *glass escalator* right to the top (i.e., being promoted more quickly than their female coworkers).
- Women may also experience workplace discrimination in the form of sexual harassment, either quid pro quo harassment or hostile environment harassment. Hostile environment harassment is more common and sexual harassment happens most often when men resent women entering a formerly all-male work environment. Recent court cases have established that women may also sexually harass men, and that men may sexually harass other men.
- Finally, women experience workplace discrimination as a result of their efforts to balance work and family. Employees who get pregnant or spend time caring for children are less likely to get promoted, so women are disproportionately impacted by the fact that workplaces do not effectively accommodate work/family balance. Women are also still seen as responsible for nearly all housework and childcare, so even after completing their paid work, women are generally responsible for a "second shift" of work at home. Men have begun to take on more of this responsibility as women entered the workforce in larger numbers, but women still bear the bulk of this responsibility. This responsibility affects women's work opportunities by limiting their ability to travel, network, rest, and otherwise do things to advance at work.

B. Gender Inequality in School

- Education includes a "hidden curriculum"—social messages we receive in addition to the subjects we study in school. The hidden curriculum includes messages about gender, including what subjects boys and girls should be interested in and how they should behave in the classroom. Research demonstrates that girls often face a "chilly classroom climate" in which boys get more attention, greater encouragement, and more active teaching. Efforts

to equalize treatment and improve instruction for girls can be difficult for boys at first, because they experience it as a loss, but these changes ultimately benefit all students.

C. Gender Inequality in Everyday Life

- In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, men were seen as the most capable of deep emotion. When the Industrial Revolution separated home and work, men had to enter the public sphere where emotion must be controlled, while women stayed home and became defined by the emotional sphere. Today, women are seen as the ones who “specialize” in love and relationships, and we define love and friendship as based on the things women prefer to do (such as emotional sharing) and not on the things men prefer to do (such as sharing in practical tasks).
- Marriage is a deeply gendered institution. We think of it as something women want and men resist, and something in which women gain and men lose. In fact, however, men benefit more from marriage than women do—compared to single men, they are happier, healthier, live longer, earn more money, and have more sex. And compared to married women, married men are healthier and happier, have less stress, initiate divorce less often, and remarry more readily and easily. Marriage benefits men more than women because of the gendered division of labor within families. Women do benefit from marriage—married people in general live longer and healthier lives, have more and better sex, save more money, and are less depressed—but men benefit more.

VIII. The Politics of Gender: Gender politics involves movements created by people who want to challenge gender inequality, whether by changing gender roles or identities or by addressing structural and institutional inequality.

A. Opposition to Gender Roles

- Both men and women have found the stereotypes and limitations assigned to their gender oppressive and have fought to change them. Women have seen the limitations as a source of gender inequality and have worked to directly fight that inequality. Men have found the expectations of their masculine role restrictive and have sought greater opportunities for emotional expression and other changes through such groups as the Promise Keepers.

B. The Women’s Movement(s)

- The “first wave” of the women’s movement took place in the nineteenth century and worked to gain women access to the public sphere (workplaces, schools, etc.) as well as the right to vote.

- The “second wave” of the women’s movement took place in the 1960s and 1970s to eliminate further barriers to women’s participation in public life but also to examine how gender inequality is part of personal life. Second wave feminists focused especially on violence against women, rape, women’s sexuality, lesbian rights, wage disparities, and the glass ceiling, and they used the motto “The personal is political.”
- The “third wave” of feminism is taking place among young women today. Today’s feminists share the same concerns as second wave feminists but take a more playful approach to the media and to consumerism, enthusiastically support heterosexual relationships and friendships with men, and have a more multicultural focus and a desire to examine the intersections of gender with race, class, and other forms of inequality. They often believe they are so empowered today that they do not need feminism any longer.
- There are also men who oppose gender inequality, who are called profeminist men.

C. Feminism

- Most young women today agree with nearly all the beliefs of feminism but still do not consider themselves feminists.
- Feminism is composed of two main principles: (1) the empirical observation that women and men are not equal; and (2) the moral belief that this inequality is wrong and should change. The focus of feminism is on women’s choices and freedom to choose what they want to be and do.
- There are three major types of feminism and each provides a different approach to examining inequality and creating equality:
 1. Liberal feminism: focuses on removing structural obstacles to women’s individual rights and opportunities, particularly in the workplace and the political arena. Critics say that liberal feminists ignore the root causes of gender inequality and only represent the interests of middle-class white women.
 2. Radical feminism: believes that patriarchy is the root of all forms of domination and that women are oppressed directly and personally by men, especially through sexual relations. Critics say radical feminists are too essentialist, drawing too stark a dividing line between men and women, and that they, too, do not pay adequate attention to the needs of women of color.
 3. Multicultural feminism: emphasizes race- and class-based inequality and how these inequalities intersect with gender inequality. Most sociologists today take this perspective in studying gender inequality.

IX. Gender Inequality in the the 21st Century: We have made many advances toward gender equality. However, many of the changes, even though they seem perfectly normal now, are actually very recent. Further, there are many people who oppose gender equality, and this opposition has produced a backlash against it. Those who advocate gender equality will continue to push us in that direction in the future.

Key Terms from Chapter Nine

evolutionary imperative: the term used to imply that the chief goal of all living creatures is to reproduce themselves (p. 260).

feminism: a way of thinking and seeing the world that rests on the empirical observation that men and women are not equal in our society, and the moral stand that gender inequality is wrong and should change (p. 281).

feminization of poverty: a worldwide phenomenon that also afflicts U.S. women, this term claims that women are over-represented among the world's poor and tend to be in worse economic straits than men in any given nation or population (p. 270).

feminization of the professions: the phenomenon in which salaries drop as female participation increases, revealing that it is less the intrinsic properties of the position that determines its wages and prestige, and more which sex does it (p. 274).

gender: a socially constructed definition based on sex category, based on the meanings that societies attach to the fact of sex differences (p. 258).

gender identity: our understanding of ourselves as male or female and what it means to be male or female, perhaps the most fundamental way in which we develop an identity (p. 259).

gender inequality: gender inequality has two dimensions: the domination of men over women, and the domination of some men over other men, and some women over other women (p. 259).

gender roles: psychology-based term to define the bundle of traits, attitudes, and behaviors that are associated with biological males and females. Roles are blueprints that prescribe what you should do, think, want, and look like, so that you can successfully become a man or a woman (p. 268).

gender socialization: the process by which males and females are taught the appropriate behaviors, attitudes, and traits for their biological sex. It begins at birth and continues throughout their lives (p. 266).

gender wage gap: the significant and remarkably consistent gap between earnings of men and women. The gap between white men and women of color is larger than the gap between white men and white women (p. 269).

liberal feminism: one of the three main branches of feminism today; focuses on the individual woman's rights and opportunities (p. 281).

multicultural feminism: one of the three main branches of feminism today; argues that the experience of being a woman of color cannot be extracted from the experience of being a woman. Multicultural feminists emphasize the historical context of racial and class-based inequalities (p. 282).

patriarchy: literally, "the rule of the fathers." It is a name given to the social order in which men hold power over women (p. 259).

primary sex characteristics: those anatomical sex characteristics that are present at birth, like the sex organs themselves, which develop in the embryo (p. 262).

radical feminism: one of the three main branches of feminism today; moves beyond discrimination economically and politically to argue that women are oppressed and subordinated by men directly, personally, and most often through sexual relations (p. 282).

second shift: term coined by sociologist Arlie Hochschild to describe how working women typically must work both outside the home for wages and inside the home doing domestic management and childcare (p. 276).

secondary sex characteristics: those sex characteristics, such as breast development in girls and the lowering of voices and development of facial hair for boys, that occur at puberty (p. 262).

sex: a biological distinction; the chromosomal, chemical, and anatomical organization of males and females (p. 258).

sex hormones: testosterone and estrogen, the hormones that trigger development of secondary sex characteristics, such as breast development in girls and the development of facial hair in boys (p. 261).

sexual harassment: a form of gender discrimination in the workplace that singles out women for differential treatment. There are two types: "quid pro quo," which occurs when a supervisor uses his (or her) position to elicit sexual activity from a subordinate; and the more common "hostile environment," which occurs when a person feels threatened or unsafe because of constant teasing or threatening by other workers (p. 276).

social construction of gender: we construct our gender identities all through our lives, using the cultural materials we find around us. Our gender identities are both voluntary—we choose to become who we are—and coerced—we are pressured, forced, and often physically threatened to conform to certain rules (p. 268).

Key People from Chapter Nine

Arlie Hochschild: coined the term “the second shift” based on her finding that women are still expected to be responsible for housework and child care even when they work outside the home (p. 276-277).

Margaret Mead: anthropologist famous for her documentation of cross-cultural gender variation in *Sex and Temperament in Three Primitive Societies* (p. 263-264).

Try-It Exercise: Gender and Occupational Stratification (does not appear in text)

Contributed by Katherine R. Rowell, Sinclair Community College

OBJECTIVE: Explore the world of work and examine to what extent work is often gendered.

STEP 1: Plan

There are two options for this project. Check with your instructor to see which option should be completed.

Option 1: Choose a restaurant (or food location on campus) to observe for this project. Please note that your instructor may assign different types of locations.

Option 2: Examine some type of “home” magazine like *Better Homes and Gardens* or *Family Circle*.

STEP 2: Collect Data**Option 1: Restaurant Observation**

Take a notebook and pen with you to the restaurant and note what employees seem to be doing; also note the gender of each employee. Be sure to note the date, time, and location of your observation.

For each employee note the following:

1. What was the employee’s gender?
2. What was the employee doing? waiting tables? cooking? cleaning? managing?
3. How was the employee dressed?
4. Did you observe any other interesting interactions?

Option 2: Magazine Analysis

Look at six advertisements in the magazine that include pictures of either men or women. Also, look through the entire magazine to see if you can find any advertisements that portray men as homemakers and women as breadwinners. If you find any type of advertisement suggesting the opposite of traditional gender norms, then bring it to class.

For each advertisement note the following:

1. What is the product being advertised?
2. What is the gender of each person in the advertisement?
3. What type of occupation does each person seem to have in the advertisement? In other words, what gender messages are being portrayed in the advertisement?

STEP 3: Discussion

Bring the data collected in your observations to class and be prepared to collectively analyze class data. Your instructor will help guide this discussion. Are there any gender patterns that exist in restaurant work? If so, what are they? What other types of work could you have observed and noticed similar patterns in? What other types of magazines could have been explored in this activity? Overall, what does any of this suggest about sex and gender in our society?

Instructor's Notes: There are two options for this project and you may want to choose just one for your students to complete. Both projects are quick ways to encourage your students to gather data in the community. It often becomes easier to make points about occupational segregation with data collected by the students. This activity could be used to integrate some data analysis into the course. You make both of these options into a much larger type of project by having students work in teams and present their findings. You may want to consider developing SPSS data sets for both options and analyze trends over time and between classes.

Try It Exercise: Gender Messages in Baby Greeting Cards (does not appear in text)

Contributed by Katherine Rowell, Sinclair Community College

OBJECTIVE: This activity is designed to help you explore the nature of early gender socialization in our society. As noted in your readings, gender socialization begins at birth. This activity gives you the opportunity to examine the earliest gender messages that start at the birth of a child.

STEP 1: Be sure to read over both the chapters on socialization and gender in your textbook before beginning this project.

STEP 2: Identify a store that sells greeting cards in your area. You will want to choose a store that has a large quantity of baby greeting cards.

STEP 3: Take a notebook and pen with you to the store and examine eight greeting cards that are specifically designed to be given for the birth of a girl and eight greeting cards that are specifically designed to be given for the birth of a boy (You may want to alert someone in the store that you are do a class project).

STEP 4: For each card note the following:

1. Primary color scheme of the card
2. Types of pictures and graphics printed on the card
3. Write the messages printed on the front and inside the card

STEP 5: Examine the data collected in Step 4 and write a paragraph on any gender patterns you noticed in this process. Be specific about any trends that you found. Please also note any cards that “broke” traditional gender norms. Overall, explain what you think this says about gender and socialization in the United States.

Instructor's Notes: Both this and the next activity ask students to examine the process of early gender socialization. It is important that students have read the chapter on socialization and the chapter on gender.

Both of these assignments work well as in-class activities in small and large classes. Should you choose to do this in class, you would need to bring sample greeting cards and/or children's books to class. Thus, you would not be sending students out but rather supplying the materials. As with many activities, this could easily be developed into a partner or group activity by assigning each group a few cards or a few books to analyze and report to the larger group.

The biggest issue with this activity, should you choose to do it in class, is to make sure you have enough materials to give to each group. Should you choose to assign this as an out of class activity, it is usually a good idea to ask students to let a store clerk know they are looking at cards for a class project. This assures that there are no unnecessary problems or concerns. In general, most store clerks can be very helpful with this project.

Try It Exercise: Gender in Children's Literature (does not appear in text)

OBJECTIVE: This activity is designed to help you identify how children are exposed to gendered messages in literature and books at a very early age.

STEP 1: Be sure to read over both the chapters on socialization and gender in your textbook before beginning this project.

STEP 2: You may choose to go to a public library or a bookstore that sells children's books for this project.

STEP 3: Take a notebook and pen with you to the library and examine five young children's books for this project (Your instructor may assign specific books or authors for this activity).

STEP 4: For each book note the following:

1. Name of book, author, and date published
2. Identify the main character(s) and write down name and gender
3. Note some of the activities completed by the main character(s) in the book

STEP 5: Examine the data collected in Step 4 and write a paragraph on any gender patterns you noticed in this process. Be specific about any trends that you found. Please also note any books that "broke" traditional gender norms. Overall, explain what you think this says about gender and socialization in the United States.

Instructor's Notes: See the notes included in the activity before this one.

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (does not appear in text)**Gender Roles**

According to traditional gender roles, it is a man's role to support his family, and a woman's primary role is to care for and nurture her family. The reality for many women is that working outside of the home is not an option, but a necessity. As the economy and standards of living have changed, it has become socially acceptable, even expected, for women to work and contribute financially to the household. Meanwhile, more men are staying at home with the children and taking on most of the child and house-care duties for the couple. Shifting norms include shifting public views on the subject. The more people see it happening, the more normalized it becomes and social acceptance eventually follows. So, what do you think?

For the following statement, please choose the answer that best reflects your personal opinion at this point in time.

A man's job is to earn money; a woman's job is to look after the home and family.

- a. strongly agree
- b. agree
- c. neither agree nor disagree
- d. disagree
- e. strongly disagree

(Actual Survey Data General Social Survey, 2004)

A man's job is to earn money; a woman's job is to look after the home and family.

In 2004, about twenty-two percent of respondents either agreed or strongly agreed with this statement. About sixty-five percent disagreed, including thirty-five percent who strongly disagreed. Men were more likely than women to agree with the statement.

Table: Men Breadwinners, Women Home by Gender %

	M	F	Average
Strongly Agree	7.6	6.4	6.9
Agree	19.1	13.0	15.5
Neither Agree Nor Disagree	25.1	18.6	21.3
Disagree	20.3	40.4	35.2
Strongly Disagree	27.8	40.4	35.2

Discussion questions

1. How do you think these responses would be different if the survey were taken in the 1950s? How have historical events and social movements contributed to the greater acceptance of women working outside the home and men working in the home?
2. What do you think the general public thinks of stay-at-home dads?
3. What do you think explains the gender differences in survey results? How might a conflict theorist explain the differences?

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (p. 275)**Women and Politics**

(Actual Survey Data General Social Survey)

Tell me if you agree or disagree with this statement: Most men are better suited emotionally for politics than are most women.

In 1972, slightly more than half of respondents said they disagreed with this statement. There was virtually no gender difference in responses. In 2004, more than three-quarters of respondents disagreed, with females being slightly more likely to disagree than were males.

If your party nominated a woman for President, would you vote for her if she were qualified for the job?

This question asks about potential voting behavior, and the responses are very different from those above. In 1974, eighty percent of all respondents said they would vote for a qualified female Presidential candidate. In 1998, the latest date for which statistics are available, that number had risen to above ninety percent. In both years there was very little gender difference.

Table: Men Better Suited for Politics Than Women by Gender %

	Male	Female	Average
1972			
Agree	47.6	46.5	47.0
Disagree	52.4	53.5	53.0
2004			
Agree	24.5	19.8	21.8
Disagree	75.5	80.2	78.2

Table: Would Vote For Female President by Gender %

	Male	Female	Average
1974			
Yes	80.5	80.1	80.3
No	19.5	19.9	19.7
1998			
Yes	94.5	92.9	93.6
No	5.5	7.1	6.4

Discussion questions

1. How would you explain the responses above? Why do you think the researchers asked about emotional suitability for politics? Do you think if gender were not a factor in the question that emotions would have been considered?
2. In sociology, we try to see the connection between historical events and changes in culture and everyday experiences. What historical events do you think played a role in the way the responses to these questions changed over

- time?
3. Why do you think there was virtually no gender difference in responses? Were you expecting that finding? Why or why not?
 4. More respondents said they would vote for a female President than said women were as emotionally suited as men for politics. What do you think explains that difference?

Teaching Suggestions

Film

- *Boys Don't Cry*: This Oscar-winning dramatization of the true story of a biologically female person who feels and enacts a male gender identity is a powerful starting point for conversations about gender identity, masculinities, and femininities, as well as gender violence and intersectionality.
- *Dreamworlds*: This classic documentary film, available in several editions using updated footage, documents how music videos normalize sexual violence. Instructors should be aware that some versions of the film include the gang rape scene from *The Accused* and students may need to be offered alternative assignments if they are not comfortable watching the film.
- *Tough Guise*: This documentary discusses gender socialization for men and boys with a particular focus on the pressures from the media (including toys, movies, and music) for men to be violent and how that violence affects both men and women.
- *Baby Beauty Queens*: This A&E documentary details beauty pageants for toddlers and young girls and is a useful tool for discussing the beauty culture and gender socialization of girls.
- *Killing Us Softly* and *Still Killing Us Softly*: These widely used Jean Kilbourne films document images of women in advertising and their relationship to negative body image and eating disorders.
- *Female Circumcision: Human Rites*: This short documentary film discusses the variety of forms of female circumcision currently engaged in Africa, shows an infant and a teenage circumcision taking place, and explores reasons for the perpetuation of this practice and possibilities for change.

In-Class Activities

- *Children's Toys Demonstration/Discussion:* Bring a variety of children's toys to class. Ask the class to identify whether each toy is "for girls," "for boys," or "for both girls and boys" (this exercise alone may generate some dissent among the students and therefore a way to discuss the plurality of gender identities and changing beliefs about gender over time). Lead students in discussing the role these toys play in the process of gender socialization and the formation of gender identities. In particular, discuss the skills, sensibilities, and interests each type of toy encourages and how those differences might translate into different choices and behavior among men and women.
- *Second Shift Chart & Discussion:* Create a chart listing as many household tasks you can think of. Include everyday tasks (cooking dinner, packing lunches for school, doing the dishes, helping the kids with their homework, etc.) and periodic tasks (mowing the lawn, changing the car's oil, sending Christmas cards, buying gifts for birthdays). Create adjoining columns for "Mom does," "Dad does," "Kids do," and "Other." Ask students to complete the chart for the practices of the family they grew up in, checking off who does which task in that family. (They may mark more than one box if, for example, mom and dad shared a certain task.) Discuss with the class that the organization of tasks will be different depending on the makeup of each student's family (for example, if the student lived with only one parent, there will probably be more tasks for the kids; also be sensitive to the fact that some students may have grown up in gay or lesbian families and note how that will affect their charts). Lead the class in a discussion, based on the charts, of whether their family's division of labor illustrates Hochschild's argument about women's overwhelming responsibility for housework and childcare even when they work outside the home. Also address the types of tasks each parent was responsible for, addressing whether men's tasks are more pleasant (e.g. taking the kids to the park rather than doing the dishes) and/or more loosely-scheduled (e.g., mowing the lawn versus a daily task like cooking dinner).
- *Feminism Exercise:* To prepare students for learning about feminism in Chapter Nine, ask them to write freely for a few minutes about what they think feminism is, what kinds of people they think feminists are, and what issues they think feminists are concerned with. Ask students to share their ideas and generate a list on the board. As a class, discuss what you notice about this list— for example, is it overwhelmingly negative or positive? Discuss with students where they get their ideas about feminism and whether they believe those are educated and accurate ideas. Then ask students to read the statement of principles or mission statement of a major feminist organization. (The statement of the National Organization of Men against Sexism, or NOMAS, is especially effective because it also provides an opportunity to discuss profeminist men.) Compare and contrast the ideas this statement expresses with the ideas and perspectives the students originally attributed to feminists.

- *Guest Speaker:* Invite a leader from a local chapter of NOW or another feminist organization to speak to the class about feminism and the group's efforts to reduce gender inequality. (This could be a stand-alone activity, or a follow-up to the feminism exercise described above.)

Projects, Papers, and Homework Exercises

- *Sex Switch Paper:* Have students write a paper in which they imagine that they were born the other sex. You can ask them to write it creatively, from that "alter ego's" perspective, or to write it more analytically. Push students to examine the range of ways their lives, personalities, career and academic interests, hobbies, clothing and appearance, etc. might (or might not) be different if they had gone through the gender socialization process of the other sex. Also ask them to consider, as they conclude their papers, how their lives would be better as a member of the other sex, and also what they would lose if they were a member of the other sex.
- *Gender in Advertising:* Have students examine gendered messages in advertising. (You can do this as a stand-alone exercise or as a follow-up to viewing one of Jean Kilbourne's films on the topic, described above.) This exercise can be done simply (ask each student to bring one magazine advertisement to class and discuss the gendered message they see in it) or more elaborately (have students perform a content analysis of a whole magazine or thirty minutes of TV ads, for example). Have students draw conclusions in writing or have an in class discussion about the impact of advertising on gender identities and about which masculinities or femininities are privileged and encouraged in our advertising and which are marginalized.
- *Children's Book Analysis:* To help students explore how gender socialization works for young children, ask them to analyze one or more children's books (or popular fairy tales). Ask them to examine the plot, the characters, and the illustrations and draw conclusions about the gendered messages children receive from this book/story. Have students share their analyses in small groups or with the whole class and try to draw broader conclusions as a class about patterns you can identify across the cases the students examined.
- *Feminism Survey:* Kimmel and Aronson discuss the fact that many people agree with feminist principles but do not consider themselves feminists. Have student groups do their own research to test this assertion. Ask the groups to research the policy positions of major feminist organizations and then create a survey asking for people's views on those issues. The survey should also ask each respondent whether he or she considers her/himself a feminist. Have students administer the survey to a variety of people and draw conclusions about support for feminist positions and about claiming the feminist label. If possible, have students further differentiate the data by considering whether they vary by age group, race, or other social factors.

For Further Research & Reading

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Chapter Ten: Age and Sexuality

Chapter Summary

Age is socially constructed, and our experience of life stages, and even the life stages we recognize, is based on the culture we live in. Age is also a basis for inequality. Elderly people often experience ageism, and there are a variety of challenges the elderly experience as they age, such as dealing with retirement and social isolation. Young people, however, also experience inequality based on their age, in part because children and adolescents rarely have the power to voice their interests. In addition, each age cohort has had different experiences and will shape our culture in different ways.

Although there are certain aspects of sexuality that are biologically based, sexuality is socially constructed, varying by culture, over time, and among different groups within a society.

Major scientific studies on sex and sexuality have found conflicting and controversial results, but overall seem to indicate that Americans are fairly sexually conservative in their practices.

American sexual behavior is highly gendered and also varies by race. There is an increasing convergence between men's and women's sexual identities and behavior, as we can see in sexual behavior among college students.

Sexual identities are also a major source of social inequality. This may lead people who have stigmatized sexual identities to form subcultures for their own comfort and protection and also to engage in political action. There are also a variety of political issues and debates around topics related to sexuality, such as sex education and pornography.

Learning Objectives

- To understand how the conceptualization and experience of age and aging have varied over time and across cultures.
- To be able to identify and describe the major life stages.
- To be able to explain how age is a source of identity and a basis for inequality.
- To be able to discuss the experiences of the elderly, particularly how they are related to ageism and other forms of inequality.
- To be able to discuss how age-based inequality affects children and adolescents.
- To understand the various facets of sexuality (sexual desire, sexual identity, sexual behavior, etc.).
- To be able to explain how sexuality is both biologically based and socially constructed.

- To be able to discuss common sexual identities.
- To be able to describe the history of sex research and its major findings.
- To be able to explain how sex is gendered and how men's and women's sexual behavior may be converging.
- To be able to explain how sexuality is related to social inequality.
- To be able to identify various issues of sexual politics and to explain the opposing views on each.

Chapter Outline

I. Introduction: Our society is obsessed with youth even as we are growing older as a society. Our society is also obsessed with sex and it is both everywhere around us and seen as a private matter. We see sexual identities as fixed and permanent but also sometimes seek to change the identities of others.

II. Age and Identity: From a sociological perspective, age is less a biological condition than a social construction, varying over time and by society. Age is a basis for identity and a cause of inequality. The sociological study of aging was traditionally called *gerontology*, but recently, sociologists have noted that studying age as an identity and source of inequality involves studying people of all ages, not just the elderly.

A. The Stages of Life

- All societies divide the *life span* into stages/age groups, each of which has its own *age norms*. These groupings help us know what to expect from different sorts of people and how to respond to them. The stages of life were simply childhood, adulthood, and old age for much of human history, but as *life expectancy* has increased, new stages of life have been coined to accommodate the changes. The stages are often shaped by major milestones, and transitions between stages may be marked by *rites of passage*.

B. Adolescence

- As work became more specialized and more education was required for people to learn the skills of the work world, adolescence began to be recognized as a distinct life stage between childhood and adulthood.

C. Young Adulthood

- Young adulthood is the transitional stage from adolescence, marking the beginning of our lives as fully functioning members of society. The five

major milestones that define adulthood (establishing a household separate from our parents, supporting ourselves financially through a full-time job, getting married, completing our education, and having children) used to be regularly achieved in the early 20s, and now are more likely to be achieved around age 30. This shift can be explained in part by increased life expectancy, allowing more time to accomplish goals and longer time spent in education.

D. Middle Age

- There are physiological changes that occur in middle age. Race and class can affect how much and how early these changes are felt, as jobs that demand physical labor will age a person more quickly. The major developmental task of middle age is accepting that one's life is fairly set and that certain childhood goals are not going to be accomplished. People in this age group also often struggle, due to increased longevity, with being "sandwiched" between their elderly parents and their children, having to care for both at the same time.

E. Old Age

- The aging of the baby boom generation, combined with the declining birth rate and increases in life expectancy, means that the elderly will make up an increasingly larger proportion of the U.S. population. This change has been described as an "age quake" that will have major social consequences. The elderly move through three stages of old age ("young old," "old old," and "oldest old").

F. Aging and Dying

- Many of the fears people have about aging are based on myths rather than reality (for example, many people fear living in a nursing home, but very few elderly people actually do so).
- People today also associate aging with dying, while in previous societies, death could come at any age and was not associated with aging.
- Rates and causes of death vary by age, race, sex, and industrial status of one's nation.
- Death is a process defined by culture, and understanding how a culture experiences and explains death provides a window through which to view the entire society.

III. Age and Inequality: The term *ageism* refers to differential treatment based on age (usually affecting the elderly rather than the young). The elderly often experience restrictions on their options (for example, rules about not selling a house to or not hiring someone over 65).

A. Age and Poverty

- The elderly in the U.S. are wealthier than they were in the past, but some elderly people cannot support themselves after retirement and about 10% still experience poverty. This rate is far higher in the U.S. than it is in other industrialized nations, where the elderly receive more government support. Age also magnifies inequalities based on race and gender.
- The *Social Security* program provides monthly stipends to the elderly based on the work they did during their adult lives, but this practice continues to extend the gap between rich and poor, as the poor are the people who were less likely to have worked consistently and therefore less likely to receive significant Social Security benefits.
- Retirees may also receive pension and health care benefits from the companies they worked for. However, companies increasingly do not offer these benefits at all, so in the future, far fewer elderly people will have these sources of support to draw on.

B. Retirement

- Work provides money, social interaction, personal identity, and life purpose, so retirement can therefore be a major life challenge. Retirement is also, however, a mark of social status. Lower-status workers, whose jobs are more physically demanding, are more likely to retire.
- Retirement today is different than it was in the past. It is no longer a clean break from work life. Today, elderly people are likely to continue working part time, to retire briefly then return to work, or to find new or “bridge” jobs rather than simply retiring.

C. Elder Care

- Family members provide most elder care today, just as they did in the past, but the declining birth rate and increased life expectancy (which means more health problems requiring professional care) mean that more elderly people today need to receive care from outside the family. The quality of care provided varies significantly by class. Family caregivers in the United States care a great deal about the elderly people they care for but also experience logistical, emotional, and financial struggles as a result of the caregiving.

IV. Youth and Inequality: As the elderly make up a greater proportion of the population and are more politically organized and financially stable than ever before, their interests are increasingly represented and addressed, while the young often remain powerless and without a voice to express their needs and concerns.

A. Youth and Poverty

- Children have the highest poverty rate of any group in the U.S. and it has been increasing in recent years. Because children cannot work to support the family, many countries provide “family allowances” for children under 18. In the United States, families are expected to provide full financial support for their children.

B. Health Care

- 12% of children in the United States have no health insurance, which leaves them without access to checkups, immunizations, and necessary medical procedures and vulnerable to accident and disease.

C. Child Labor

- In the United States, there are strict federal and state laws prohibiting and limiting labor performed by children and adolescents. Teenagers in the U.S. generally work for spending money rather than to support their families. Worldwide, however, a significant number of children, including very young children, are in the workforce, and they work in order to contribute to the family income. Children may be trafficked to do agricultural or other work, but they may also be forced into the global sex trade or to participate in other illegal activities (pickpocketing, etc.). Children are also forced to participate in armed conflict.

V. Getting Older *and* Getting Better? Youth and Age

VI. Studying Sexuality: Bodies, Behaviors, and Identities

- When sociologists study sexuality, they distinguish among desire (physical attraction), behavior (sex), and identity (sexuality). All three elements of sexuality are very social and are therefore subject to norms and values about their correctness.
- Sexual behavior is learned from the people and culture around us, just like any other behavior, and cultures develop *sexual scripts* which provide us with ideas and practices that guide our sexual behavior. Learning the culture’s sexual scripts is the process of *sexual socialization*.

- Sexuality is socially constructed. Four points illustrate this fact:
 1. Sexuality varies greatly from culture to culture.
 2. Sexuality varies within a culture over time.
 3. Sexuality varies among different groups in society.
 4. Sexual behavior changes over the course of your life.

A. The Attractive Body

- People often believe that attraction is instinctive, but this can't be the case since standards of physical attractiveness vary by culture, over time, and by social class. What we think of as beautiful is less about individual perception and more a matter of cultural standards. Standards of beauty (including body shape and weight considered ideal) vary greatly from culture to culture. Standards for women's beauty vary depending on economic trends and women's status. In the U.S., the standards of beauty are so narrow that many women feel trapped by the "beauty myth."
- Inequalities of class, race, and gender affect people's weight and height, both within a society and globally. The relative incidence of obesity and starvation is one example of this phenomenon, and both are examples of physical responses to a changed environment.
- Eating disorders, as well as men's bodily disorders (e.g., muscle dysmorphia), also demonstrate how people respond to current standards of beauty.

B. Desires and Behaviors

- *Sexual behavior* also varies by culture and between social groups within a culture. Social institutions monitor and police sexual behavior, identifying some as wrong and deviant. People's definitions of different forms of sexual behavior (e.g., what constitutes sex or what constitutes cheating) also vary. Who we have sex with, how, when, where, and why can all vary by culture, time, and sub-group within a culture.

C. Embodying Identity

- We all engage in some form of bodily transformation, and increasingly, many people engage even in permanent bodily transformation, such as tattoos, cosmetic surgery, and even surgical sex changes. Each of these practices is a way of embodying our identities.

D. Sexual Identities

- Norms about sexual behavior also govern how we develop a sexual identity, which coheres around a preference for a type of person or a specific behavior. Although we often think of sexual preferences as fixed, our preferences actually fall on a fluid continuum.
- *Heterosexuality* is the most common sexual identity worldwide. It is considered normal, and is normative (meaning that deviations from it are punished) in most cultures. We usually understand heterosexuality in relation to marriage. *Homosexuality* has been documented in most cultures and is praised in some cultures, condemned in others, and presumed not to exist in yet others. Although sexual orientation seems straightforward, it is actually complex (for example, people who identify as heterosexual may engage in same-sex practices).
- Sexual identity itself was not created until the nineteenth century, when the idea of sexual desires and behaviors as an essential part of one's identity developed. Before that time, people focused on sexual behavior rather than a sexual identity.
- Although some people seek to change their sexual orientation, it seems that while behavior can be changed, sexual identity generally remains fixed.
- We usually think of sexual identities as either gay or straight, but we must also consider *bisexuality* in understanding sexual identities. Bisexual people are attracted to men and to women in different circumstances.
- There are other sexual identities based on things other than the gender of your partner. In addition, some people's sexual identity is that they are *asexual*.

E. The Interplay of Biology and Society

- There has been much debate about whether our sexual orientation is innate or learned. Evidence seems to demonstrate that it is a combination of both factors—we have an innate, biological interest in a certain sex, but culture shapes how we understand, act on, and feel about that interest.

VII. American Sexual Behavior and Identities: Americans' attitudes about most sexual behaviors have been fairly stable over the past 35 years, but we must keep in mind that there is often a gap between people's moral positions regarding others' behavior and their moral positions regarding their own behavior. In addition, a person's general attitude toward a certain sexual behavior (e.g., homosexuality) does not tell us what their behavior will be when they encounter that behavior, or persons who engage in it, in real life.

A. The Gender of Sexuality

- The most important factor organizing our sexual identities is gender. Men and women are taught to have very different attitudes toward sexual desire, behavior, and identity. These lessons shape men's and women's sexual behaviors whether they are gay or straight. The sexual double standard, related to these ideas about men's and women's sexualities, also shapes our sexual behavior. In recent years, however, we have begun to see a convergence in men's and women's sexual attitudes and behaviors, which can be called the *masculinization of sex*.

B. Convergence on Campus

- Hooking Up: The practice among young people of "hooking up" rather than following traditional norms of dating and mating is one example of this convergence.

C. Convergence on Campus

- Just Saying No: College students of both sexes have also formed a counterculture in opposition to the culture of hooking up, making pledges to maintain their virginity until marriage. Research shows that abstinence campaigns advocating such pledges seem to have some effect on teen sexual behavior but that they are not able to offset the other messages teens receive about sex. Teens who have taken these pledges very often break them, are less likely than other teens to use contraception when they do so, and are just as likely as others to engage in other sexual practices like oral sex. Because abstinence education often replaces sex education, many pledgers were not even sure how to clearly define abstinence and what would "count" as breaking their pledge.

D. Rape and Sexual Assault

- Despite the convergence in sexual behavior on campus, there is still a major difference in the area of nonconsensual sexual activity, with women far more likely to be the victims of rape or sexual assault.

E. What Else Affects Sexuality?

- Race, age, and political issues like levels of gender equality also affect sexual practices and sexual satisfaction.

VIII. Sexual Inequality: Sexual identities and behaviors are the basis for significant social inequality. *Homophobia* and *heterosexism* police sexual desire, behavior, and identities, limiting the rights and opportunities of gay and lesbian people.

A. Sexual Minority Communities

- Members of minority sexual orientations often band together to form sexual minority communities in order to find partners and protect themselves from the hostility of mainstream society. They create subcultures that may also engage in action to try to change mainstream norms to eliminate the stigmas against them. In particular, the gay rights movement has been very successful at changing laws and attitudes about homosexuality. Its success is partly due to its connections to nongay people, created because the movement arose at the same time as the other counterculture movements of the 1960s. The gay rights movement has been so successful that much of the gay subculture can no longer survive because it has become part of the mainstream, dominant culture.

B. Sexuality as Politics

- The state regulates sex in many ways, and sexual politics involve scientific, religious, and political issues that combine in complex ways on particular topics, such as sex education, sex tourism, and pornography.

C. Sex Tourism

- The Globalization of Sex: Wealthy men have pursued sex with “exotic” foreign women for centuries. Today, *sex tourism*, with arrangements often made through the Internet, makes this practice even more widely available. Sex tourism can be seen as the globalization of prostitution, including the fact that there is often coercion involved in getting the women to provide sexual services. Women and children may be kidnapped and forced to work as sex workers to pay off debts incurred in transporting them to the locations where they are put to work. Certain countries have developed large sex tourism industries, and these industries reveal the relationships between countries that have power (those that consume the sexual services) and those that do not (those that sell the sexual services), as well as inequalities, locally and globally, between men and women.

D. Sex Education and Birth Control

- Sex education has also been controversial. Critics believe that teaching children about sex encourages them to engage in it, while supporters argue that young people will experiment with sex anyway and that sex education will help them make safer choices. Research evidence lends support to both

points of view. The federal government has recently attempted to require schools to teach abstinence-only sex education curricula, although some states rejected federal funding in order to continue to teach a broader curriculum. Sociologists generally believe that abstinence should be taught as one of a range of options and that young people will make better choices with more information.

- The debate about birth control and abortion is similar: some believe that people are encouraged to have more sex if birth control and abortion are available to minimize the consequences of sex, while others believe that their availability helps people be safer and healthier when they do have sex. Sociological evidence shows that information about and availability of birth control do not increase sexual activity but do lower rates of teen pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases. Debates over certain forms of birth control and over abortion have affected the global politics of birth control, such as what sorts of clinics American funds will contribute to abroad.

IX. Age and Sexuality in the 21st Century

Key Terms from Chapter Ten

adolescence: a life stage between childhood and adulthood (p. 289).

Adonis complex: male body image disorder in which men believe that they must look like Greek gods (p. 305).

age cohort: a group of people who are born within a specific time period and therefore assumed to share both chronological and functional characteristics. (p. 288)

age norms: distinctive cultural values, pursuits, and pastimes that are culturally prescribed for each age cohort (p. 288).

ageism: differential treatment based on age, usually affecting the elderly rather than the young (p. 296).

anorexia nervosa: eating disorder involving chronic and dangerous starvation dieting and obsessive exercise (p. 304).

asexual: people who have no sexual desire for anyone (p. 313).

bisexuality: a sexual identity organized around attraction to both women and men (p. 312).

bulimia: eating disorder involving “binging and purging” (p. 304).

chronological age: a person’s age determined by the actual date of birth (p. 288).

functional age: a set of observable characteristics and attributes that are used to categorize people into different age cohorts (p. 288).

gerontology: the sociological study of aging (p. 288).

graying of America: the growth in the proportion of Americans over age 65 while the proportion under age 35 shrinks (p. 287).

heterosexism: the institutionally based inequality that may derive from homophobia (p. 318).

heterosexuality: sexual behavior between people of different genders (p. 311).

homophobia: an attitude, a socially approved dislike of gay men and lesbians, the presumption that they are inferior to straight people (p. 318).

homosexuality: sexual desires or behavior with members of one's own gender (p. 311).

hooking up: a deliberately vague blanket term to describe a sexual encounter which may or may not include sexual intercourse, usually occurring only on one occasion between two people who are strangers or brief acquaintances (p. 315).

life expectancy: the average number of years that people born in a certain year could expect to live (p. 288).

life span: the length of a person's life, which all societies divide into stages, seasons, or age groups (p. 288).

masculinization of sex: term used to describe the fact that women's sexuality is becoming increasingly similar to men's (p. 315).

muscle dysmorphia: male body image disorder involving the belief that they are too small, insufficiently muscular (p. 305).

retirement: the end of work, which is a mark of social status (p. 297).

sandwich generation: middle-aged adults who are caring for dependent children and aging parents at the same time (p. 291).

sex: when we are discussing sexuality, refers not to one's biological sex, but rather to sexual behavior or sexual conduct—the things people do from which they derive sexual meanings (p. 301).

sex tourism: the globalization of prostitution, in which wealthy men are directed to poor women in other countries for sex (p. 320).

sexual behavior: any behavior that brings sexual pleasure or release (p. 307).

sexual identity: an identity that is organized by the gender of the person(s) to whom we are sexually attracted; may also be called sexual orientation (p. 309).

sexual script: a set of ideas and practices that answer the basic questions about sex (p. 302).

sexual socialization: process through which, over the course of childhood and adolescence, and even through adulthood, our understanding of our culture's sexual scripts begin to cohere into a preference (p. 302).

sexuality: the identities we construct that are often based on our sexual conduct (p. 301).

Social Security: program begun in 1940 that improved the financial situation of the elderly (p. 296).

transgenderism: an umbrella term that describes a variety of people, behaviors, and groups whose identities depart from normative gender ideals of masculinity and femininity (p. 306).

Key People from Chapter Ten

Robert Butler: coined the term "ageism" (p. 296).

Try It Experiment: The Pink Triangle Experiment (does not appear in text)

Submitted by Jerome Rabow and Pauline Yeghnazar, UCLA/CSUN.

OBJECTIVE: This activity encourages the development of a greater understanding of heterosexist privilege and the role prejudice and discrimination play in our everyday lives.

STEP 1: Research

Take a moment to review some of the symbols of the gay pride symbols by visiting the following website: www.stonewallsociety.com/gaysymb.htm or by searching for information in your library. Your instructor may also share information on pride symbols and their development. Your instructor may also assign you to read an article published about the Pink Triangle Experiment (see the note at the end of the box).

STEP 2: Plan

Your instructor will either assign this as an individual project or as a partner project. You will be asked to choose one of the gay pride symbols and wear it for the day (your instructor may assign a longer time period) on your campus (most students choose to wear a pink triangle). Your instructor will either provide you with symbols to choose from or have materials on hand for you to make a symbol to wear (it should be the size of a lapel pin or only slightly larger). Should you be uncomfortable wearing a symbol, you should choose to partner with another student who plans to wear the symbol for the day. Be sure to follow the directions of your instructor. If you choose not to wear a pin but partner with a pin wearer, you will want to plan to be with this

person for at least part of the time he or she wears the symbol. As you wear the symbol on campus, keep notes on comments made to you throughout the day.

STEP 3: Write

At the end of the day (the end of the assignment), write a one-page paper on your experiences. Be sure to include answers to the following:

- Describe the most powerful moment or incident in your wearing of the symbol.
- Explain the who, what, when, and where of your experience and be sure to include comments on how you felt about wearing the symbol.
- What was the most difficult part of doing this assignment?
- For non-symbol-wearers, include a discussion of your observations and conversations with your partner and discuss your concerns about wearing the symbol.
- Include a conclusion where you discuss overall what you thought about this project and what it indicates about our society and culture. Do you think you would have received different reactions had you worn the symbol in your community? In your church? Where do you think you would be most welcomed? Least welcomed? Why?

STEP 4: Discuss

Be prepared to turn in your comments in class and to share your thoughts about this assignment. What do you think this has to do with prejudice and discrimination in our society?

A more detailed description of this assignment can be found in Rabow, Jerome, Jill M. Stein, and Terri D. Conley, "Teaching Social Justice and Encountering Society: The Pink Triangle Experiment," Youth and Society 30 (1999): 483–514.

Instructor's Notes: This can be a very powerful activity for students but does take some planning on your part. It is suggested that you make symbols ahead of time and distribute to class. This saves class time and also permits for some uniformity in symbols being worn on campus. It is highly recommended that you consider your own campus climate for tolerance and diversity before assigning this activity and that you read some of the various articles written about this experiment prior to using it in a classroom (See list below). This is one of those activities where it might be a good idea to discuss with another instructor who has used this in a classroom. This particular activity can also be used for other forms of prejudice and discrimination such as religious symbols, political symbols, etc. It is also a good tool to understand the importance of symbols in our culture and works well for the chapter on culture. While it may be possible to explore other types of symbols, this really depends on your campus climate. Here are some other options to consider:

1. Consider exploring a discussion of the "Purple triangle" and have students compare and contrast the similarities and differences between these two symbols. Here are some useful websites on this topic:

<http://www.ushmm.org/education/resource/jehovahs/jehovahsw.php>
<http://www.webster.edu/~woolfm/PurpleTriangle.html>

2. Rather than have students wear the symbols, ask them to imagine what would happen if they wore the symbols on campus and discuss in class the types of situations the students would expect to happen. Another alternative would be for you to wear a symbol to class and at the end of class ask them what thoughts went through their mind when they saw you wearing the symbol.

There have been several published articles about this experiment. You may want to read them before undertaking this particular activity. Here are two of them:

“Teaching Social Justice and Encountering Society: The Pink Triangle Experiment.” (Rabow, Jerome, Jill M. Stein, and Terri D. Conley, *Youth and Society* 30: 483-514, 1999).

“Dealing With Prejudice in the Classroom: The Pink Triangle Exercise.” (Chesler, Mark and Xumena Zuniga, *Teaching Sociology* 19:19-22, 1991)

Try It Exercise: Heterosexist Fantasy (does not appear in text)

Submitted by Jerome Rabow and Pauline Yeghnazar, UCLA/CSUN

OBJECTIVE: This activity helps students understand the role that institutions play in providing support for heterosexism and the negative sanctions faced by gay and lesbian students.

STEP 1: Your instructor will ask you to read the following hypothetical scenario or he/she may read it to you in class:

The American Government has just declared war. It is now official. The government must take this emergency measure because nothing else has worked for the past twenty years and if we do not do something about this now, we will all perish. There is severe over-population in the world today. It is depleting all our resources, land, water and food. We will not survive if we continue the way we are. In this national emergency, the government is declaring war on all individuals who believe in, practice or advocate heterosexism and heterosexual behavior. Now and for the next twenty years anyone involved in heterosexual relations will be severely punished under the law. Schools that employ heterosexuals will lose all federal funding. Teachers must lose their jobs if they are found out to be heterosexuals. They might be infiltrating the young minds of our students, and pushing them towards heterosexism. Churches that allow heterosexual members to come and worship must be shut down. No heterosexual clergy shall be allowed to conduct meetings. They may use their power to encourage heterosexism and push their members into disobeying the law. Any company whose members practice heterosexism will be fined and kept under close supervision. Co-ed living spaces are outlawed and so is marriage. If heterosexuals want to live together and risk getting caught and losing their jobs, that it up to them but the government will not encourage or allow any heterosexual marriages. Current marriages will be dissolved and all parties will be sent to reeducation classes.

The nation will learn to be proud of homosexual unions and marriages and that will be the only way in which marriage will be recognized. Heterosexuals can also serve in the army as there is a “don’t ask, don’t tell” policy but if they are found out, they will be dishonorably discharged. The army is a pure and patriotic institution and we do not want heterosexuals corrupting its long

traditions of honor and sacrifice. Mental health practitioners will be trained to discourage their clients from exploring their heterosexual potential. From universities to clubs and bars, all public places shall be segregated. We do not want any institution to encourage the flamboyant, promiscuous and disgusting practice of heterosexuality. Additionally, anyone who is found to be practicing or spreading the ideas of heterosexism will be required to wear a black triangle as a means of identification. They will not be given the same rights and benefits as their homosexual counterparts who are worthy of love, respect and every government protection. Our government has started a huge fund to begin research into the abnormalities that have caused heterosexism. It is not natural because if it were, we would not be in the state of national disaster we are currently in. The rate of divorce between heterosexuals is destroying our family values. The number of affairs between heterosexuals is a tragedy to the sanctity of marriage. Serial sexuality between heterosexuals reduces the sacredness of our human bodies and results in many out of wedlock pregnancies, abortions and personal disintegration. We must fight against this disease. Our best doctors and researchers will be brought together to find a cure for this illness.

As we start to know more about the causes of heterosexism, the government is going to implement a policy of prevention. Heterosexism is a choice and we must do whatever it takes to stop people from making a choice. You can make a difference by reporting any individual that seems to exhibit signs of heterosexism. We must contain it right when it surfaces because our survival depends on it. Many of these signs can be seen in children and parents can make a difference by reporting these early on. The signs for boys include a desire to play with toy trucks and fire engines. The signs for girls can be seen if they want to dress up and play with Barbies and other dolls. Rest assured your loved ones will not be hurt. They will be put into good programs designed to help and reeducate them. We will treat them with the best psychologists, therapists, psychoanalysts and doctors. We will find out what went wrong in their childhood and in the wiring of their brains. We will identify what made them make such an unnatural and wrong choice and we will nurse them back onto the right path. Although we love our heterosexual friends and family members, we cannot accept their sinful behaviors and choices. They will be punished if they do not change. Others can help by reporting any, even small, heterosexist behaviors. Behaviors include whistling, excessive eye-contact, long conversations, flirting, hand-holding, kissing or hugging between a male and a female. These actions will be punished with fines and misdemeanors. Larger offenses like intercourse of any kind can and will result in a loss of basic rights. Assuming that heterosexism is merely a phase is a dangerous and hurtful belief. Allowing people to stay in this phase might even push them towards a commitment to a lifestyle that will not only alienate them from the natural mainstream of homosexuality, but also violate many laws.

In order to promote homosexuality, men and women will be retrained to find love in the other that is themselves. They will be trained to see the beauty that can be found with their own body. They will see that this way is in fact the most natural and familiar. Schools will also be changed to teach a curriculum that admires all our homosexual heroes. Our textbooks will now reflect the hidden history that would make our homosexual nation proud. We have gay and lesbian writers, artists and poets who shall become national household names. We need to have coins and paper money with the faces of our nation's homosexual heroes. They will be a part of what every one of our children will now revere and admire. Only in these ways can we preserve our great country and the future of this world which is in grave danger. We cannot allow the heterosexual

agenda to take over. I know as loyal Americans we can stamp out this horrible, ugly, unnatural and now unlawful lifestyle. We can convince heterosexuals that they have made the wrong choice, punish them for that choice, and then reeducate and reincorporate them into the homosexual mainstream that our country's fate depends upon. Please join in this righteous and moral endeavor. Together we can wipe this disease from our shores, solve our overpopulation problem and live to see a healthy future for America and the entire world.

STEP 2: Your instructor will lead the class in a discussion of this scenario. Some things to think about include: How many of you would be in violation of the law? How many of you would choose to stay in the closet about your heterosexism? How many of you would try and move to another country? How many of you do you think would try to fight against the laws and sanctions? How and Why? What questions do you still have? What about this scenario seemed unrealistic? What suggestions would have you for change in this scenario? Thinking back to our current society, what changes do you think the future holds for this issue?

Instructor's Notes: The authors of this particular activity suggest that instructors either turn out the lights or ask students to close their eyes as they read the following scenario. It works best to read this in class to the students and then pass it out as a handout. This particular activity could be problematic in a college classroom depending on the institution. In order to use this type of activity well and for the benefit of the student, you would want to be comfortable with the topic and it is recommended that you read some materials on homosexuality in the college classroom. There are numerous websites with articles on diversity issues in the classroom and homosexuality is often included. This is not the type of activity that you would want to use in a classroom without some well thought out guided discussion questions. You would want to have some posted ground rules for discussion. You may want to remind students that this activity focuses on heterosexism and encourage them to stay focused on the activity. Students often want to jump right to a discussion of homosexuality without really answering the questions about this particular activity. You may want to consider contacting the authors of this particular activity for more advice on using it. Here are some useful websites and references to consider:

<http://gender.eserver.org/overcoming-homophobia.txt>

<http://ctl.unc.edu/tfi9.html>

<http://rapidintellect.com/AEQweb/5may2583w4.htm>

http://www.leaonline.com/doi/abs/10.1207/S15328023TOP2801_08

http://wiu.edu/users/mitfeh/ptf_well.htm

<http://www.inqueery.com/>

Recommend reading this book: Teaching for Diversity and Social Justice, 2nd edition. Routledge, 2007.

Try It Exercise: Examining Survey Research about Sexual Attitudes and Behavior (does not appear in text)

Developed by Katherine R. Rowell, Sinclair Community College

OBJECTIVE: This activity helps students explore how sociologist research sexual attitudes and behaviors through the survey method. Students will also have the experience of reading some of the findings of this survey research.

STEP 1: Review the chapter on sexuality before starting this assignment. After reviewing the chapter, your instructor may ask that you watch the film Kinsey before completing this assignment or may ask that you read the PBS transcripts about Kinsey and his work at the following website:

<http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/amex/kinsey/timeline/index.html>

STEP 2: You will need access to the Internet in order to search for completed surveys on sexual attitudes and behaviors. There are numerous published papers and surveys on this topic. You are not permitted to use any of the surveys completed by either the Kinsey Institute or the National Opinion Research Center (NORC). After you identify a survey, go to step 3 in order to complete this assignment.

STEP 3: Briefly explain your survey in a one to two page short paper. Be sure to include the following in your write up:

- a. Who conducted the survey?
- b. When was it completed?
- c. How many people were surveyed? Who were they? (Women, Men, Teenagers, etc)
- d. Was it a random survey?
- e. What were some of the major findings of this research?
- f. Did anything surprise you about the results? Explain.
- g. Overall, what are some of the problems with using the survey method to research sexual attitudes and behavior? Explain.
- h. If you could design a survey about sexual behavior and attitudes, what would you be interested in researching? Explain.

STEP 4: Be prepared to turn in your assignment in class and to share your results with your classmates.

Instructor's Notes: This particular activity once again integrates some level of data analysis in the introductory sociology classroom. While this particular assignment requires access to the Internet, you could easily print off sexual attitude surveys and bring them to class for students to evaluate as partner or pair projects. You may even want to show the feature length film on Kinsey as part of this particular assignment. The PBS website has many additional resources to use as part of this particular activity.

Try It: Body Image and Eating Disorders (does not appear in text)

Developed by Katherine R. Rowell, Sinclair Community College.

OBJECTIVE: Examine the research on body image and eating disorders.

STEP 1: Research

Take some time to read some of the reviews of body image research available on the Internet. Websites like the Social Issues Research Centre and the Media Awareness Network are good places to start.

STEP 2: Develop

Participate in an online body image survey by going to the Monash University website and searching for “open learning psyII.” Click on the top result. (Please note that some instructors may also ask you to look at the collated data for this project and answer some questions about the data; directions for this option will be given in class.)

Answer the following questions on a separate sheet of paper:

1. What does body image research suggest about gender and body image?
2. What did you think about this survey? How accurate do you think it might be? What are some of the potential problems with an online survey?
3. What differences would you expect to find between men and women on this survey? Explain.
4. How might you study the topic of body image?
5. What if anything does this have to do with eating disorders? Cite some sources for this question.
6. How does all of this relate to sociology?

STEP 3: Discuss

Bring your responses to class and be prepared to share and discuss your thoughts on this assignment.

Instructor's Notes: This activity is meant to be a very brief introduction into this issue. You may want to assign different readings for students to read prior to doing this activity. There are numerous projects that make use of body image research. This is also another great opportunity to integrate data analysis. The collated data for the Monash study is available as an Excel file. You may want to convert the data to SPSS and require students to do the survey on campus and enter the data as part of a class assignment. Here are some other websites and resources to consider:

<http://www.sirc.org/publik/mirror.html>

<http://www.media->

[awareness.ca/english/issues/stereotyping/women_and_girls/women_beauty.cfm](http://www.media-awareness.ca/english/issues/stereotyping/women_and_girls/women_beauty.cfm)

http://www.college.library.wisc.edu/resources/subject_guides/bodyimage.htm

This assignment also works well when paired with some type of gender advertisement analysis. See the following website as another good resource:

<http://www.genderads.com/>

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (p. 290)**Teen Sex**

Rites of passage are typical experiences for most of us who move through childhood and onto adulthood and beyond. These rites of passage have cultural and personal significance; one of these rites of passage is becoming sexually active. Societal norms no longer dictate that sexual activity should only be engaged in within the confines of marriage, and as premarital sex becomes more accepted, the age at which young people first engage in sexual activity gets younger. Despite this, there is an age limit before which most people believe youth should not be engaging in sex.

So, what do you think?

For those in their early teens, 14-16 years old, sex before marriage is:

- a. Always Wrong
- b. Almost Always Wrong
- c. Sometimes Wrong
- d. Not Wrong At All
- e.

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2004.

For those in their early teens, 14-16 years old, sex before marriage is: always wrong according to 70% of all respondents in 2004. Women were more likely than men to report thinking it was always wrong. Another 17% of respondents thought it was almost always wrong. Ten percent thought it was sometimes wrong, and almost four percent thought it was not wrong at all. Middle-class respondents seemed to be more conservative in their views on teen sex, while upper-class respondents seemed to be the most liberal.

Teen Sex by Gender %

	Male	Female	Total
Always Wrong	64.5	74.2	70.0
Almost Always Wrong	18.2	15.5	16.7
Sometimes Wrong	11.9	7.8	9.6
Not Wrong At All	5.3	2.6	3.8

Teen Sex by Social Class %

	Lower	Working	Middle	Upper	Row Total
Always Wrong	66.6	68.5	73.6	60.5	70.5
Almost Always Wrong	9.3	16.9	15.1	16.9	15.5
Sometimes Wrong	15.0	11.1	8.2	18.1	10.2
Not Wrong At All	9.1	3.5	3.2	4.4	3.7

CRITICAL THINKING / DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Why do you think women are more conservative in their views toward teen sex than are men?
2. How do you explain the social class differences in responses about attitudes toward teen sex?

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (does not appear in text)**Extramarital Sex**

One of the main tenets of the institution of marriage is fidelity. Marriage, currently limited in the U.S. to heterosexuals, is based on monogamy. In our culture, divorce has become so rampant that some say what we actually practice is serial monogamy, where individuals are monogamous in a series of relationships. Still, one of the main reasons cited for divorce is adultery, or extramarital sex. The phenomena of open marriages and polyamory are gaining wider, although not widespread, acceptance.

So, what do you think?

How wrong do you think it is to have sex with a person other than one's spouse?

- a. Always Wrong
- b. Almost Always Wrong
- c. Sometimes Wrong
- d. Never Wrong

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2004.

How wrong do you think it is to have sex with a person other than one's spouse? In 1973, 70% of respondents said it was always wrong to have sex with a person other than one's spouse. In 2004, those numbers were higher, at slightly over 80%. In both years, and in the years in between, more women than men were likely to say it was always wrong, and more men than women to say it was never wrong.

Table: Attitudes Toward Extramarital Sex by Gender %

	1973			2004		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Always Wrong	64.1	74.3	69.6	76.5	86.0	81.6
Almost Always Wrong	15.5	14.1	14.8	14.2	9.6	11.7
Sometimes Wrong	14.1	9.5	11.6	6.0	3.9	4.8
Never Wrong	6.4	2.1	4.1	3.3	.6	1.8

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. The gender difference in responses is not large, but it is interesting. What do you think explains the gender difference?
2. Why do you think the number of respondents who said extramarital sex was always wrong has increased in the past 30 years?

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (does not appear in text)**Homosexuality**

Homosexuality has always been a contentious topic in the U.S. and worldwide. Homosexual marriage rights are currently being debated around the world. Several states in the U.S. have provisions for marriage-like civil unions between members of the same sex, and many other states have passed constitutional amendments explicitly banning gay marriage. The issue of gay marriage is informed by morality and values and by feelings about same-sex relationships and same-sex sexual behavior. Often, people have trouble seeing beyond their personal moral values to larger issues such as civil rights.

So, what do you think?

Do you think homosexual sexual relations are:

- a. Always Wrong
- b. Almost Always Wrong
- c. Sometimes Wrong
- d. Not Wrong At All

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2004.

Do you think homosexual sexual relations are always wrong, almost always wrong, sometimes wrong, or not wrong at all? The majority of respondents to the General Social Survey questions from 1973 to 2004 reported that they thought homosexual sexual relations were almost always wrong. However, those numbers have declined significantly over the past 30 years, while the number of respondents who reported thinking homosexual sexual relations were not wrong at all increased dramatically. Gender differences were almost nonexistent, but there are interesting differences when we look at the data by social class.

Table: Attitudes Toward Homosexual Sexual Relations by Social Class % 1973

	Lower Working		MiddleUpper		Total
Always Wrong	96.2	77.5	64.7	75.0	72.3
Almost Always Wrong	.0	5.2	8.2	.0	6.2
Sometimes Wrong	.0	4.9	10.6	20.0	7.8
Not Wrong At All	3.8	10.1	13.7	5.0	11.4
Other	.0	2.3	2.7	.0	2.4

Table: Attitudes Toward Homosexual Sexual Relations by Social Class % 2004

	Lower Working		MiddleUpper		Total
Always Wrong	70.5	60.4	54.2	33.4	57.4
Almost Always Wrong	3.3	5.5	4.7	.0	4.9
Sometimes Wrong	7.8	5.1	8.7	4.3	6.9
Not Wrong At All	18.5	29.0	32.4	62.3	30.8

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTION

1. Social class differences in attitudes toward homosexuality are quite striking. How do you explain these differences? What part does social location and socialization into the class structure play?

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (does not appear in text)**Adult Children and Older Parents: The Sandwich Generation**

Changes in the age of marriage and childrearing coupled with increased life expectancy have led to a phenomenon known as the “Sandwich Generation” among Baby Boomers. This can be a very stressful position with increased demands on one’s time, energy, finances, and emotional resources. Most elderly people live either alone or with relatives, usually their grown children. Fewer adults live in institutions like nursing homes, although with more social acceptability, more elderly individuals are living in institutions. Other elderly people are homeless or living in abject poverty. Elderly people living with adult children often live happy, full lives. Sometimes, though, various stressors can lead to frustration and abuse. Most abuse of the elderly is perpetrated by relatives, primarily by adult children. However, most caregivers do not abuse their elderly charges.

So, what do you think?

As you know, many older people share a home with their grown children. Do you think this is generally a good idea or a bad idea?

1. A Good Idea
2. A Bad Idea
3. Depends

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2004.

Many older people share a home with their grown children. Do you think this is generally a good idea or a bad idea? According to 2004 GSS survey results, almost half of respondents thought it was a good idea, and almost half thought it was a bad idea. About one-fifth said it depends. There was very little difference among responses when separated by class or gender, but there was significant disparity when separated by race. White respondents were least likely to think it was a good idea, and most likely to think it was a bad idea. About half of black respondents thought it was a good idea. The category of “other” had the highest percentage of respondents thinking it was a good idea.

Perceptions of Aged Parents Living with Grown Children %

	White	Black	Other	Total
A Good Idea	41.3	51.2	64.9	43.4
A Bad Idea	42.5	32.1	19.3	40.3
Depends	16.3	16.7	15.8	16.3

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTION

1. How would you account for the racial differences in responses? The largest numbers of individuals in the category of “other” are of Hispanic or Asian descent. Can you think of any cultural explanations for the disparity? Why do you think there was very little difference based on gender or social class?

Teaching SuggestionsFilm

- *30 Days: Anti-Aging*: One episode from Season One of Morgan Spurlock’s TV show *30 Days* (an expansion of the concept behind his popular film *Supersize Me*) is about Americans’ negative attitudes toward aging. It chronicles one man’s effort to regain a youthful body by taking (under a doctor’s supervision) steroids and other anti-aging medications. The film entertains students and is a useful way to discuss not only attitudes toward aging and the physical body but also other American cultural values, like the belief in the “quick fix” and faith in science and medicine.
- *Invisible Children*: This powerful documentary shows the daily struggle of children in Northern Uganda to avoid being captured and forced to serve as child soldiers. Because the film was made by three American college students and addresses the issues from their perspective, students will find it especially engaging. The film can be used to expand upon the “Youth and Inequality” section of the chapter and can be drawn upon later in the course when you cover global issues, politics, and other related topics.
- *Out at Work*: This HBO documentary presents three cases of workplace discrimination (from simple firing to extreme harassment and violence) against gay and lesbian people and helps students understand the significant level of homophobia present in the U.S. today and how it affects gay and lesbian people and their families.
- *After Stonewall*: This documentary examines the gay rights movement from the watershed event of the Stonewall Riots (1969) to the present (the film was released in 1999). The film can help students understand more fully the successes and struggles of the movement.
- *Killing Us Softly* and *Still Killing Us Softly*: These widely used Jean Kilbourne films document images of women in advertising and their relationship to negative body image and eating disorders.

In-Class Activities

- *Field Experience*: Arrange for your class as a whole, or some subset of the class that chooses this project, to visit a retirement community. Before the visit, discuss as a class the stereotypes and discomforts our society has, and that the students themselves have,

with the elderly. Also discuss what students should be looking for at the visit (observing the behavior of the residents and staff, learning about the major challenges the residents and staff face, etc.). If possible, have someone offer the class a tour of the facility with information about activities, the types of people who live there and their range of needs, the involvement of families with those who live at the facility, etc., as well as arranging some form of interaction between the students and the residents. Ask students to write a reflection on the experience and discuss what they learned at the next class meeting.

- *Childhood around the World*: Chapter Ten discusses the inequalities facing young people around the world, including poverty, lack of health care, and child labor. Give a lecture in which you expand on this topic, providing statistics and information about the status of children in the U.S. and abroad on these dimensions, and other dimensions of their welfare (e.g., access to education). You might draw upon resources like the United Nations website and the website of the Children's Defense Fund for basic statistics and information on these issues.
- *Exploring Gay and Lesbian Culture*: Gay and lesbian identities are not only about sexual behavior; they also represent membership in a subculture. Have students explore one piece of this subculture by examining gay and lesbian magazines, such as *Out* or *The Advocate*. Bring a set of these magazines to class, including both the more politically-focused publications and the more fashion/lifestyle-focused ones. Ask students to write reflectively before the exercise on what they know about gay and lesbian people, gay and lesbian subcultures, and what they would expect these magazines to be like. (Be sure to note that you are aware that some students in the class are gay or lesbian themselves or have close friends or family members who are, so as not to make the exercise sound like you believe gay and lesbian people are outsiders being studied by a room full of heterosexuals. You might want to suggest that those who are familiar with these publications should write instead about what they think their classmates who do not have this familiarity are probably expecting, and why.) Then, put students in small groups to examine the magazines and make observations about what they notice, both the things that confirm their expectations and those things that challenge them. Also encourage students to generate questions they have about the ideas presented in the magazines. Have each group report to the whole class their observations and questions, and discuss what was learned from the exercise.
- *The "Big Four"*: If you are assigning chapters of the textbook in the order they appear in the text, you have now covered all of the "big four" types of stratification—class, race, gender, and sexual orientation. Take some time in class to lecture about, and/or discuss with the class, the similarities and differences among these four types of stratification (how they are structured, how they affect our lives, how our identities with regard to each category are acquired, how dominant and subordinate groups interact, etc.).
- *Guest Speaker*: Invite a guest speaker from a gay or lesbian organization at your college or in the community to speak to the class about his or her experiences as a gay or lesbian person and about gay and lesbian issues more broadly. Such organizations often offer speakers who are comfortable coming to classrooms to tell their personal "coming out"

stories, answer whatever questions students might have about homosexuality, and also discuss broader issues like discrimination and political activism on behalf of gay rights.

Projects, Papers, and Homework Exercises

- *The Five Milestones of Adulthood*: To help students understand how different their lives are from those of adults who came of age in other generations, have them write a reflection about their own life plan. When and how do they expect to achieve each of the five milestones described on page 290? Then, have them interview one adult of their parents' generation and one adult of their grandparents' generation, focusing on the five milestones and when and how these adults achieved them. Have students write a follow-up response reflecting on what they learned from their interviews about life stages, aging, and change over time. Discuss what the students found in class.
- *Obsessed with Youth?*: Ask students to analyze what our popular culture tells us about different age groups. Assign different age groups to different students (for example, have some students examine the portrayal of children, some examine the portrayal of teenagers, some examine the portrayal of young adults, some examine the portrayal of middle-aged people, etc.). Make a plan as a class regarding what sorts of texts students will examine (magazines, sitcoms, popular movies, music, etc.). Have students examine their texts and bring their results to class. Put students who examined each age group together to come to a group consensus about our culture's beliefs about that age group, and then have each group present its findings (both its conclusion and some examples the students observed) to the class. Discuss as a class how these ideas about different age groups shape our behavior, from everyday interactions with others to our own life choices to the social policies we support and enact.
- *Sexual Scripts in the Media*: Chapter Ten introduces the concept of sexual scripts. Have students explore the sexual scripts that have been provided to them by the media by assigning a content analysis exercise. As a class, select a set of TV shows and/or movies that have recently been popular with students. Then, identify a list of questions students should find answers for as they watch these shows (e.g., who initiates sex? What kinds of settings do people have sex in? What discussion takes place about the sex, either before, during, or after sex? Etc.). Have students watch their show/movie at home and bring their findings to class. Then, as a class, combine the results and look for patterns, discussing the dominant American sexual scripts today, the differences there might (or might not) be between scripts for young heterosexual people and those for homosexual people, for older people, and for other groups, and how these media presentations of sexuality might affect people's actual sexual behavior.

For Further Research and Reading

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Chapter Eleven: The Family

Chapter Summary

The family takes various forms across cultures and even between groups within a culture, but family is a foundational institution in all societies. The nuclear family and companionate marriages we are familiar with developed over time and became the norm only fairly recently in our society. Today, families have become even more diverse, varying by race and ethnicity as well as by people's choices to remain single, to cohabitate, or to remain childless. Biracial marriages and same-sex relationships also add to the diversity of American families today. Parenting has also changed a great deal in recent American history, with the rise of single-parent families, of grandparents raising their grandchildren, and of various types of adoption. Families today also face many challenges, such as the transitions of divorce and family blending, and the prevalence of various forms of family violence.

Learning Objectives

- To be able to describe the various types of family forms which occur cross-culturally and over time.
- To be able to explain the current form of the family in American society and why and how it developed over time in relation to other social changes.
- To be able to discuss how family forms and family life do and do not vary by class, race, and ethnicity.
- To be able to discuss the range of family forms in the U.S. today, including delayed marriage, staying single, cohabitation, child-free living, adoption, biracial marriage, gay and lesbian couples, grandparenting, and single-parent families.
- To be able to discuss the major family transitions and their effects on the married partners and children involved.
- To be able to describe the types of family violence and their prevalence and effects.

Chapter Outline

I. Introduction: We often believe that the family is in danger or in decline, while at the same time, family has never been more popular or wanted by so many people. Whatever its status, the family is central to society and integrally related to other social institutions.

II. The Family Tree: The family ensures the survival of children through the long period of helplessness that humans, unlike other animals, experience.

A. Families as Kinship Systems

- The *family*, present in every society, is a cooperative group of adults organized to take charge of the care of children. Families are part of *kinship systems*, which may be organized in various ways. Lines of descent may be *matrilineal*, *patrilineal*, or *bilineal*.

B. Culture and Forms of the Family

- Family is the fundamental unit of society, related to economics (e.g., the transfer of property), politics, and the regulation of sexuality.
- Social rules determine who individuals may marry and have sex with. The most common rule is *monogamy*, but some societies have some form of *polygamy* as well. A few societies practice *group marriage*.
- Marriage rules ensure that children are cared for, and also tell us who we can and can't marry when we grow up, since most societies require *exogamy*. Different cultures, however, define who is in your family—and therefore who is off limits for marriage—differently.

C. The Family Unit

- There are many different types of family units, although individual families are almost always differentiated by separate living quarters, cooking areas, and the like.
- Most people will live in at least two different family units during their lifetimes: a *family of origin* and a *family of procreation* (although these families of adults may or may not actually procreate).

D. The Development of the Family

- Although we tend to think of the nuclear family as a constant throughout history, the form of the family has changed over time according to the family's roles in economic, political, sexual, and child-rearing activities.
- In agrarian societies, there was no distinction between family and society. Families were economic units focused on production, and they served various social roles, including teaching children, carrying out religious activities, medical and elder care, etc. The most common form of family during this time was the *extended family*, as a nuclear family could not perform all of these necessary functions.

E. The Origins of the Nuclear Family

- Although marriage originally served as a way to regulate sexuality, ensure legitimacy of children, and govern the passing on of property and status, it has come to be defined by other factors, such as the emotional bond between marriage partners (*companionate marriage*). It is only recently that many societies began to see marriage as the choice of the individuals involved rather than as something to be arranged by other parties.
- The *nuclear family* is also of recent origin. Its development was made possible by the ability of one breadwinner to support the family and the development of health and hygiene such that one adult could care for children alone. It continued to gain prominence as industrialization began to provide services to families that extended family members used to provide.
- There have been costs in the shift to the nuclear family form. New couples and new parents must discover how to live together and raise children “from scratch,” less able to draw on the knowledge and skills of past generations. The nuclear family is also more gendered than other family forms, with tasks and roles divided along gender lines and women increasingly restricted to the home. These changes also led to changes in ideas about children and their needs.

III. Family and Ethnicity: In addition to varying by culture, families also vary within a culture, by race and ethnicity, because the family forms developed for each racial/ethnic group under distinct historical circumstances. Despite these patterns, there is variation among the families of each racial/ethnic group. In addition, we see many of the same patterns among the white working-class, and when a racial/ethnic minority develops a middle class, its families tend to look like those of the white middle class. These patterns indicate that the nuclear family ideal depends on a certain level of financial resources more than it is based on racial/ethnic differences. Sociologists are interested in studying how one model becomes dominant, the standard against which other families are measured.

A. The European American Family

- This family form, which has become the dominant one against which other families are measured, was based on the Anglo-Irish family of the 17th century, took on characteristics of the various immigrant groups that became part of it in the U.S., and was shaped by social policies (e.g., restrictions on women’s participation in the workforce) and social ideologies about proper gender roles and childrearing practices. Government funding supporting the growth of suburbs and media idealizations of this family form also helped make it the dominant family form in American culture.

B. The Native American Family

- Before the arrival of Europeans, Native American families were based on the extended family model, involving extensive kinship networks that shaped all social interaction. There was significant diversity in family forms and practices between different tribes. Today, many Native American people marry outside their ethnicity, and most Native Americans in cities live in nuclear families. More traditional Native American family forms are more common among Native Americans living on reservations.

C. The African American Family

- During slavery, slaves were not allowed to marry, and husbands, wives, and children were deliberately separated in order to increase obedience. Slaves created their own marital bonds in the face of these restrictions and formed extended family networks like those they had in West Africa. As economic changes since the 1970s have left many African Americans out of work, the nuclear family, which relies on one breadwinner, has become less sustainable. African Americans have lower marriage rates, higher divorce rates, and higher rates of single motherhood than other groups. They often use the model of “fictive kinship” to create extended families of non-blood relations, friends, neighbors, etc. who provide mutual support in times of need.

D. The Asian American Family

- Asian Americans come from many different cultural groups, so they brought many different family traditions to the U.S. with them. More recent immigrants are more likely to have family forms reflecting their traditional culture, but even those who have been here three or four generations still show differences from the white middle-class standard family form. Chinese- and Japanese-American families assign roles and responsibilities to family members based on Confucian principles, focusing on the collective good rather than individual needs and wants. These families also tend to be more hierarchical than Euro-American families, with parents and older siblings exerting authority rather than making decisions democratically. In addition, boys of any age may have authority over older sisters and over their mothers.

E. The Hispanic Family

- Like Asian Americans, Hispanic Americans come from a variety of cultures and therefore bring various family forms to their lives in the United States. Hispanic families fall in-between Euro-American families and African American families: most are nuclear families, but they have many characteristics of extended families as well. They tend to be hierarchical by age and gender like Asian American families, but this varies according to

cultural origin. The longer the family has been in the United States, the more gender equal it becomes, probably as a result of social mobility.

IV. Forming Families

A. Courtship and Dating

- In ancient societies, courtship was largely unknown. Marriages were arranged, often from childhood, although children did often find ways to meet potential mates in advance and express their views. The custom of dating did not emerge until the 1920s. It began in the working class and spread to the middle class by the 1930s. College and high school became times of unparalleled freedom for youth, who focused on dating and finding marriage partners. Dating became part of the process of becoming an adult. Dating was seen as appropriate only for young people, until in the 1970s, the increased divorce rate made it common for older adults to participate in dating as well. Today, dating is common among all groups, but at the same time, on college campuses, young people are choosing “hooking up” instead of dating.

B. Marriage

- Marriage is the most common foundation for family formation in the world. Its universality suggests that it provides a secure foundation for family functions (child socialization, property transfer, etc.). It is also a legal arrangement, with societies providing economic and social incentives to married couples (and, therefore, excluding those who are not allowed to marry from those benefits) in order to encourage the formation of stable families.
- In recent years in the U.S., as well as around the world, there has been a trend toward later marriage and less marriage; the social results of such shifts are much debated. The number of *multigenerational households* has also increased.
- The likelihood of being married, as well as the age at which marriage is likely to happen, varies by race, class, and nationality.
- Although it was once stigmatized, singlehood has now become normal in the U.S., although not necessarily respectable. Women are more likely to be single than men, and single women have better employment, education, and mental health than single men.
- *Cohabitation* used to be impossible—landlords would not allow it unless the individuals were related by blood or marriage because nonmarital sex was illegal. Today, it has become common and generally accepted, and it is also common in liberal countries worldwide. Some people cohabit as a “trial marriage,” while others do not plan marriage at all and cohabit for financial

reasons. Cohabitation is more common among the less affluent, and women in cohabiting couples experience more stress than do married women, perhaps because their relationships can dissolve more easily and there are fewer protections for them and their children if this happens.

- These increases in delayed marriage, singlehood, and cohabitation can be explained by new practices in courtship and dating, higher levels of education for both males and females, and changing sexual behaviors and attitudes.

C. Biracial Marriage

- Interracial sexual relationships and marriages were illegal for most of U.S. history. Today, they are still outside the norm, but are much more common than they once were. Certain racial/ethnic groups are more likely to intermarry than others, and there are common patterns when members of particular races marry (e.g., a black-white marriage usually involves a White woman with an African American man).

D. Same-Sex Marriage

- Same-sex couples have cohabited for centuries, sometimes having to pretend that they were not couples. The typical lesbian or gay couple today is urban, well educated, less likely to have children, and more egalitarian. Although gay and lesbian couples cannot marry in the U.S., gay marriage and civil partnerships with the same rights as marriage are legal in much of Europe and in several other countries around the world.

V. Parenting: Today, we both see parents as more central than ever at shaping their children, and at the same time see children's development as biologically determined. We also value children more than ever, while at the same time neglecting and undervaluing them.

A. Gender and Parenting

- Although most women now work outside the home, domestic work still remains primarily the province of women. American fathers have, though, become more active and involved in parenting than they were in the past.

B. Single-Parent Families

- The major cause of single-parenting in the first half of the twentieth century was parental death, whereas today, parents are usually living elsewhere. Single-parent families have become more common among all groups, but the greatest increases have been among less-educated women and among African Americans. Most people are single parents as a result of unexpected pregnancy that led the father to leave, or a relationship that ended, rather than by choice. Most single mothers are young and unprepared. At the same time,

an increasing number of single women choose single motherhood through fertility clinics and sperm banks or through adoption. Single parents are usually mothers because men can leave during a pregnancy, and because courts usually grant custody to women.

C. Grandparenting

- There has been significant growth in the number of grandparents raising their grandchildren, usually because the father has abandoned the child and the mother is incompetent, in prison, or on drugs.

D. Adoptive Parents

- Adoption used to be about helping women with unwanted pregnancies, but it has shifted to a focus on helping families who want a child, whether because they cannot conceive themselves or because they simply prefer adoption. Adoption has generally positive effects, but some involved have reported negative experiences. Adoption by non family-members has significantly declined in recent decades, and adoption is still seen in the U.S. as “not quite as good as having your own.”

E. Not Parenting

- Remaining childless (or child-free) is increasingly common. Women with more education are more likely to remain childless, and Hispanic women are less likely than White or Black women to do so. People give a variety of reasons for remaining child-free, including concerns about overpopulation, a desire to focus on career, financial concerns, and simply not liking children.

VI. Family Transitions: While marriage was once a lifelong commitment impossible to get out of, today, divorce makes it possible to dissolve a marriage (although not the family that was formed by the marriage). The divorce rate in the United States rose from the 1890s to 1970s and has fallen significantly (along with marriage rates) in the last 25 years. Some sociologists have identified a “divorce divide” in which different social classes exhibit different patterns of divorce. Sociologists point out both the problems with readily-available divorce and the benefits of it. In general, men become more content with their marriages over time and women become less so, and it is usually the wife who wants a divorce.

A. The Consequences of Divorce

- Research on the emotional and psychological consequences of divorce for both partners is mixed, probably because people enter into divorce for such different reasons and because divorces may be easy or hard.
- After divorce, women’s standards of living decline, while men’s go up. Divorce plays an even bigger economic role for many minority families

because they were more likely to have relied on two incomes for family survival.

- Although divorce creates various strains for children, research consistently shows that children are resilient and adapt successfully to their parents' divorces. The parents' relationship with each other and with the children better predicts children's success than whether or not the parents are divorced.

B. Blended Families

- Blended families face various challenges, and children in these families may have a harder time in school than those raised in traditional two-parent families.

VII. Violence in Families

A. Intimate Partner Violence (IPV)

- IPV is the preferred term for what is commonly called "domestic violence," because not all of this violence occurs in the home. IPV is the single major cause of injury to women in the U.S., and the problem of family violence is also widespread globally. Although IPV occurs in all social classes and to women of all races and ethnicities and all ages, there are some patterns. Poor women are more likely to be the victims of IPV, as are younger women. One of the best predictors of the onset of IPV is unemployment. There is some evidence of racial and ethnic differences in victimization, but the differences often disappear when social class is taken into account. Gay and lesbian people can also engage in IPV. The major difference in IPV rates is gender: women are 85% of IPV victims.

B. Intergenerational and Intragenerational Violence

- Families also exhibit significant rates of intergenerational (between generations) and intragenerational (within a generation—i.e., between siblings) violence. Sibling violence can have significant consequences for the victims. Children may also commit violence against their parents; this tends to decline as children age.
- Violence against children (child abuse and child sexual abuse) is much more significant. It has been declining in the present decade but the rate is still much higher in the U.S. than in other industrialized countries, in part because of rates of child poverty in the U.S., which is a risk factor for child abuse. Rates of child abuse vary significantly by class but less by race and ethnicity. Some research shows that living with a stepparent significantly increases a child's risk of abuse and sexual abuse. Child abuse and neglect is also a major problem globally. However, American parents accept much more violence

against children than we might think (for example, many support and have used corporal punishment with their children, although evidence shows it is developmentally harmful).

- Family violence is often difficult to remedy through policy initiatives because there is a sense that family life is a private matter, and because victims fear retaliation and feel shame. The general cultural acceptance of violence leads to underreporting of family violence.

VIII. The Family in the 21st Century: “The Same as It Ever Was”

Key Terms from Chapter Eleven

bilineal descent: line of descent through both your parents’ sides of the family (p. 329).

cohabitation: unmarried people in a romantic relationship living in the same residence (p. 341).

companionate marriage: marriage in which individuals choose their partners based on emotional ties and love (p. 332).

exogamy: norm, enforced in almost every human society, that marriage to, or sex with, members of your family unit is forbidden (p. 330).

extended family: the most common family form in the premodern era, in which two or three generations lived under the same roof or at least in the same compound (p. 332).

family: the basic unit in society, traditionally consisting of two parents raising their children, or any of various social units differing from but regarded as equivalent to the traditional family (p. 328).

family of origin: the family you are born into (p. 330).

family of procreation: the family you choose to belong to in order to reproduce (p. 330).

group marriage: type of marriage where two or more men marry two or more women (p. 330).

intimate partner violence: lethal or non-lethal violence experienced by a spouse, ex-spouse, or cohabiting partner, boyfriend or girlfriend, or ex-boyfriend or girlfriend; commonly called “domestic violence” (p. 353).

kinship systems: cultural forms that locate individuals in the culture by reference to their families (p. 328).

legitimacy: a child’s status when the man knows which children he has fathered, usually ensured by limiting sexual activity to marriage (p. 329).

matrilineal descent: line of descent through your mother's side of the family (p. 329).

monogamy: the most common type of marriage—marriage between two people (p. 329).

multigenerational households: adults of more than one generation sharing domestic space (p. 339).

nonmarital sex: sex that is not related to marriage (p. 343).

patrilineal descent: line of descent through your father's side of the family (p. 329).

polyandry: rare form of polygamy in which one woman marries two or more men (p. 330).

polygamy: marriage between three or more people (p. 329).

polygyny: the most common form of polygamy, involving the marriage of one man to two or more women (p. 329).

Try It Exercise: Understanding Trends in Marriage Behavior in the United States (does not appear in text)

Modified from an activity by Amy Guptill, Suny-Brockport, and available on the Social Science Data Analysis Network

OBJECTIVE: Use census data to explore marriage trends in the United States.

STEP 1: Access WebChip.

Your instructor will give you specific directions in class on how to gain access to WebChip (you can go to www.ssdan.net/datacounts/howto). This is a research tool developed by the Social Science Data Analysis Network at the University of Michigan. There is a tutorial that you may be instructed to do before attempting this assignment.

STEP 2: Print the module.

Go to the module on trends in marriage behavior developed by Amy Guptill at Suny-Brockport and print out the module for your use.

STEP 3: Write your responses.

After printing out the module, follow the step-by-step directions provided to complete this assignment. Write your responses directly on the sheets you print out. (Please note that some instructors may have already copied this module for you.)

STEP 4: Think about the census data.

After looking at 2000 census data, take a moment to answer the following question: What do you think 2010 census data will indicate about marriage trends? What changes do you expect to find and why?

STEP 5: Share with the class.

Please plan on turning in the completed module to your instructor and to share your thoughts on Step 4 in class.

Instructor's Notes: Integrating data analysis can be difficult in large classes and it is also difficult without access to some type of lab setting for students. The Social Science Data Analysis Network (SSDAN) is a university-based organization that creates demographic media, such as user guides, web sites, and hands-on classroom computer materials that make U.S. census data accessible to policymakers, educators, the media, and informed citizens. SSDAN is directed by demographer William H. Frey and utilizes facilities at the Population Studies Center, University of Michigan. All of these activities are available for use in the classroom. They can be modified and adapted to meet your classroom needs and students can access the data from any computer with Internet access. The key to using this particular activity or any activity from this network is to try it first and modify it as needed for your own classroom use. You may need to slightly modify directions and/or questions for your learning objectives and develop your own guidelines for the assignments. It is also a good idea to make sure you understand the directions before assigning it to your students. There are numerous activities on this network that could be modified for use in the introductory sociology classroom.

Here are some links to get you started:

http://www.ssdan.net/datacounts/modules/index/guptill_marriage_index.shtml

<http://www.ssdan.net/datacounts/modules/bytopic.shtml>

Try It Exercise: Thinking about Marriage Forms

Modified from an activity submitted by Phil Zuckerman, Pitzer College

OBJECTIVE: This activity will give you an opportunity to compare and contrast the various marriage forms that exist in the world.

STEP 1: Review the chapter on family before starting this assignment.

STEP 2: Your instructor will assign you to be part of a group. Each group will be assigned one of the following marriage forms to explore further including: heterosexual monogamy, polygyny (one man, several wives), polyandry (one woman, several husbands), and group marriages (several husbands and wives) (Please note this is not an exhaustive list and depending on the size of your class, your instructor may include other forms).

STEP 3: You will be given fifteen minutes to come up with as many reasons as possible to make the case that your marriage form is the best for society. Include scientific/biological arguments, religious arguments, common sense arguments, arguments from nature (what animals do), what would be the best for children, population control, economics, etc. After you have completed this

list, go back and repeat the process exploring why this marriage form would not be the best marriage form for society. Be prepared to share your lists in class.

STEP 4: Your instructor will give each group a few minutes to present the pros and cons of each marriage form. After each group has presented, your instructor will allow for some class time for you to explore what might be the best marriage form for a society like the United States.

Instructor's Notes: It is helpful for students to have some access to research on the marriage forms before developing arguments. You may want to give them time to access a computer or give them some facts sheets about the marriage forms to help them develop arguments. You may also want to develop some ground rules to help guide the debate. This activity could also be adapted into a short writing assignment or online discussion forum. You may want to include other forms depending on time and class size. The student version did not include same-sex marriages (it is a good idea to include it) and if you choose to include it, just note that it will most likely dominate the debate in class. You may want to consider including this activity as part of a larger class discussion for Chapter Ten on Sexuality.

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (does not appear in text)

Racial and Ethnic Family Diversity

Interracial marriage was illegal in the United States until relatively recently. In 1967, the Supreme Court decided that marriage was legal between any consenting unmarried man and unmarried woman, regardless of race. Still, the general population is often uncomfortable with the idea. Interracial couples are still frequently the targets of hate crimes and discrimination. Although there are more and more interracial children in the U.S., they are mostly white-Asian, white-Hispanic, or some combination other than white-black. So, what do you think?

For the following statements, please choose the answer that best reflects your personal opinion at this time.

Do you think there should be laws against marriages between blacks and whites?

1. Yes
2. No

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey

Do you think there should be laws against marriages between blacks and whites? The overwhelming majority of respondents said no to this question in the 2002 survey. More black (95.1%) than white (89.6%) respondents said no. The numbers were very different when the question was asked 30 years earlier in 1972, when about 60% of respondents said no. In the 1972 survey, the race categories were limited to "white" (of whom 60.7% said "no,") and "other" (of whom 66.7% said no). Most respondents were white.

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Why do you think almost 10% of the population still thinks interracial marriage should be illegal, including 9% of black respondents?
2. Part of doing sociology is placing things in historical context. What historical changes have taken place in the past 30 years that might explain how views toward interracial marriage have changed?

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (p.349)

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2004

1. *Do you think it should be possible for a pregnant woman to obtain a legal abortion if the woman's own health is seriously endangered by the pregnancy?* In 2004, 86% of respondents said yes, 14% said no. These results are almost identical to 1972 responses. The percentage of respondents saying yes peaked in 1991 at 91.5%
2. *Do you think it should be possible for a pregnant woman to obtain a legal abortion if she is married and does not want any more children?* In 2004, 41.8% of respondents said yes, and 58.2% said no. The percentage of people saying yes peaked 1994 at 48%, but otherwise, the data were almost identical to 1972, and attitudes have remained pretty steady since then.
3. *Do you think it should be possible for a pregnant woman to obtain a legal abortion if the family has a very low income and cannot afford any more children?* The responses from 2004 showed 41% of respondents saying yes, and 59% saying no. The response for those saying yes was rather lower than 1972, and again peaked in 1994.
4. *Do you think it should be possible for a pregnant woman to obtain a legal abortion if she became pregnant as a result of rape?* In 2004, 76.2% of respondents said yes, and 23.8% said no. The response for those saying yes was lower than it was in 1972, and peaked in 1991.

Table: Attitudes Toward Abortion: % “Yes” Response

2002

	M	F	M	F
Health	87.8	86.0	91.9	89.0
Want No More	42.3	37.1	44.2	39.7
Low Income	50.1	47.5	42.5	40.2
Rape	79.2	79.0	78.8	72.9

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What do you think lies behind the variation in responses of approval toward abortion based on the reason for abortion? The highest approval was for the pregnant woman's health, next for rape victims, lower for married women who do not want children, and lowest for women who want to abort because they are poor. What societal values does this ranking reflect?
2. Why do you think the results break down by gender the way they do?

Teaching Suggestions

Film

- *The Smith Family*: This emotional film presents the story of the Smith Family, a Mormon family struggling with the impending death of Steve Smith, the father, from AIDS he contracted during a homosexual affair and then passed on to his wife. The family's heart-wrenching struggle with these challenges, and with issues of faith and family as they go through them, is a powerful way to engage students in discussing the complexities of today's families and to connect them to related issues like sexuality, gender inequality, and religion.
- *In the Name of Love*: This documentary profiles several couples who met and married through matchmaking services connecting Russian women with American men. The film shows how the services work and clearly exposes both the romantic and the pragmatic reasons women and men use them. The film can be used to discuss the complexity of forming relationships today and can be connected to phenomena students may be more familiar with (and less judgmental of), such as Match.com and other dating sites.
- *When Abortion Was Illegal: Untold Stories*: This short film presents interviews with women who sought out illegal abortions during the pre-Roe era, as well as with doctors and others who helped them. It is useful to help students understand the social climate and logistical, emotional, and medical dangers women faced before abortion was legalized in the U.S. and can be used as a way to build from the textbook activity on attitudes toward abortion (page 00).

In-Class Activities

- *Second Shift Chart & Discussion*: If you did not do this exercise when covering Chapter Nine (gender), now is a perfect time to do it. Create a chart listing as many household tasks you can think of. Include everyday tasks (cooking dinner, packing lunches for school, doing the dishes, helping the kids with their homework, etc.) and periodic tasks (mowing the lawn, changing the car's oil, sending Christmas cards, buying gifts for birthdays). Create adjoining columns for "Mom does," "Dad does," "Kids do," and "Other." Ask students to complete the chart for the practices of the family they grew up in, checking off who does which task in that family. (They may mark more than one box

if, for example, mom and dad shared a certain task.) Discuss with the class that the organization of tasks will be different depending on the makeup of each student's family (for example, if the student lived with only one parent, there will probably be more tasks for the kids; also be sensitive to the fact that some students may have grown up in gay or lesbian families and note how that will affect their charts). Lead the class in a discussion, based on the charts, of whether their family's division of labor illustrates the sociological finding that women bear the overwhelming responsibility for housework and childcare even when they work outside the home. Also address the types of tasks each parent was responsible for, addressing whether men's tasks are more pleasant (e.g. taking the kids to the park rather than doing the dishes) and/or more loosely-scheduled (e.g., mowing the lawn versus a daily task like cooking dinner).

- *The Fifties Family*: In class, show students some clips from classic TV shows about the American family (e.g., *Leave it to Beaver*). Discuss what was good and bad about how these families worked, and how the families portrayed on these shows compared to reality. Draw upon such works as Stephanie Coontz's *The Way We Never Were* to provide additional lecture material to expand on this discussion and on the material in the textbook about the normative American family and how it developed.
- *Guest Speaker on Adoption*: Adoption is becoming increasingly common in the United States, and the rules governing it have changed significantly over the past several decades. In addition, adoptions are increasingly international and transracial, creating multi-ethnic and multi-racial families. Invite a speaker from a local adoption organization to speak to the class about these changes in adoption and how they are affecting American society and American families. (For information on these changes beyond what the textbook provides, and a list of organizations you might contact for speakers, see Pertman 2000, in references below).

Projects, Papers, and Homework Exercises

- *Dating and Birth Control*: One major factor that helped change dating and courtship behavior was the widespread availability of birth control, and in particular, the birth control pill. In class, give a brief lecture about the history of birth control and how it relates to the changes in courtship, dating, and marriage discussed in this chapter. Encourage students to consider how their own dating behavior might be different if they did not have access to birth control. Then, at home, have students visit the PBS website *The Pill* (<http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/amex/pill/>). Assign them specific tasks to do at the site, such as reading pro- and anti-pill editorials from the 1960s and watching the short video clips of people discussing what their lives were like before and after the pill. Have students write a response paper in which they reflect on what they learned from the site and connect it to their own lives and/or to what they learned in the textbook. Follow up with a class discussion.

For Further Research and Reading

References Cited in the Text

Bailey, Beth L. *From Front Porch to Back Seat: Courtship in Twentieth Century America*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1989.

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Coontz, Stephanie. *Marriage: A History*. New York: Viking, 2005.

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Hochschild, Arlie. *The Second Shift*. New York: Viking Press, 1989.

Stack, Carol. *All Our Kin*. New York: Harper and Row, 1974.

Additional Sources

Coontz, Stephanie. *The Way We Never Were: American Families and the Nostalgia Trap*. New York: Basic Books, 1992.

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Chapter Twelve: Economy and Work

Chapter Summary

The work we do is both a source of our identities and a necessity we engage in for financial support. Similarly, the economy serves both the people and creates social inequality.

The major world economies have developed from agricultural economies to industrial economies to postindustrial economies. This shift has involved a shift from production to consumption and from production of goods to production of knowledge.

Capitalism, socialism, and communism are the three major economic systems. The American economy, which developed through the trajectory just mentioned, could be described as neither purely capitalist nor as socialist, falling somewhere in-between the two. Corporations, which consolidate the economy and force small businesses out, are central to the American economy. Multinational corporations are central to the American economy in its postindustrial phase.

Evidence shows that workers are more productive when they feel valued and seen as individuals. Workers can also be led by management to buy into a system that oppresses them through the process of manufacturing consent. Today, people work in white-collar, blue-collar, pink-collar, and service jobs, as well as in alternatives to wage labor like contingent work, unpaid work, and working off the books. Unemployment is also always present.

Today's workplace is increasingly diverse in race/ethnicity and gender composition, but people of color, women, and gay and lesbian people still face barriers and inequalities in the workplace. Working parents also face unique challenges in today's workplace.

Learning Objectives

- To understand the dual nature of work and the economy.
- To be able to describe the development of the major world economies, with particular focus on the American economy.
- To be able to describe the three major economic systems, including how they work and the justifications behind each.
- To be able to list and discuss the types of work people do today.
- To be able to discuss the experience of work and the research evidence about worker productivity.
- To be able to discuss diversity in the workplace and describe the continued barriers to equality.

Chapter Outline

I. Introduction: Our work provides both a source of identity and pride and our financial support. But it provides each to different degrees, which is how the economy reproduces social inequality.

II. Theories of the Economy: The major economic theories differ based on whether they believe that people serve the *economy* or that the economy serves the people. Some theorists focus on competition and self-interest as the basis for our economic activities, while others focus on cooperation. Marx believed both of these behaviors were at play: the economy divided people into unequal classes in which the upper class worked for satisfaction and controlled social and economic life, while the working class worked because they had to. Weber argued that capitalism arose from a desire to make the world a better place, and Durkheim focused on how people are interdependent in modern societies. All of these theories are true in some way about modern economies.

III. Economic Development: Early human societies were nomadic hunter-gatherer groups in which everyone worked together doing the same basic tasks and everyone had about the same amount of resources.

A. The Agricultural Economy

- The Agricultural Revolution led to greater production by fewer people, creating a division of labor and surplus of goods which could be traded to others. These exchanges created *markets*.

B. The Industrial Economy

- The Industrial Revolution changed the economy again. Industrial economies differed from agricultural economies in their amount of power (due to the use of machines), centralization, specialization, the use of wage labor, and the separation of work and home.

C. Consumption and the Modern Economy

- Efficient production led modern economies to shift from production to consumption, and advertising became a major part of the business endeavor. People began to achieve prestige through *conspicuous consumption*.

D. The Postindustrial Economy

- Industrial economies flourished for over two hundred years, and the nations that had them are still the world's economic leaders. Today, those "developed" countries are shifting more and more jobs in the service sector, creating a *postindustrial economy* defined by a prevalence of *knowledge work*, rootlessness, and globalization.

IV. Economic Systems: All societies must deal with production, distribution, and consumption. Each uses an *economic system* to do so.

A. Capitalism

- *Capitalism* arose in the Netherlands and Britain during the Protestant Reformation. Economists gave capitalist practices an ideological basis when the Industrial Revolution began. Classical capitalism has three components: private ownership of the means of production, an open market with no government interference, and seeing profit as a valuable goal.
- In the United States, many people believe that democracy (our political system) requires capitalism, but in fact, the two often contradict each other.
- Because of the tension between democracy and capitalism, capitalism has developed differently in different democratic societies, including laissez-faire capitalism, state capitalism, and welfare capitalism. The U.S. economy incorporates elements of all three forms of capitalism.

B. Socialism

- *Socialism* is the opposite of laissez-faire capitalism, based on collective ownership of property, collective goals with no focus on profit, and central planning. Socialist communes have existed in the U.S., and Marx argued that to avoid the oppression of capitalism, all nations should become socialist. Many countries, rich and poor, have socialist economies today, but they allow some degree of entrepreneurship, profit, and individual wealth. High taxation in these societies provides social welfare programs for everyone. Some scholars believe such societies could be considered welfare capitalism just as much as democratic socialism.

C. Communism

- *Communism* is based on collective ownership of the means of production and is administered collectively, without a political apparatus to ensure equal distribution. Marx believed that all societies should become communist, but that it was difficult and could only be achieved after some years in socialism. Under communism, government is abolished, people are all rewarded equally regardless of their jobs, and social inequalities and social problems like crime would disappear.
- Communist ideas were most likely to take hold in agricultural societies, often after a revolution or civil war, rather than in the industrialized societies where the gap between owners and workers was most evident. These societies generally experienced a growth of government and bureaucracy rather than its withering away, and thus never achieved communism. Sociologists explain

this by pointing out that social inequality is based not just on income, but also on status and power, so eliminating income disparities will not eliminate all inequality. Today, most communist countries have shifted to some form of capitalism.

V. The American Economy

A. The Impact of Industrialization: Displacement and Consolidation

- The Civil War can be seen as a clash between two economic systems—the industrial economy of the North and the agricultural economy of the South. With the North's victory, industrialization took over the whole nation's economy.
- A major part of industrialization is consolidation—small shopkeepers and artisans are displaced by larger corporations. This process often creates resentment and sometimes a reaction. Regulatory agencies were created in the early 1900s to give consumers and employees more equal power in relation to major corporations, but the changes did little to control the power of the robber barons, whose actions created an unstable market and led to the Great Depression. President Franklin Roosevelt responded with the New Deal, which backed off from the laissez-faire economics that had enabled the crash and created things we take for granted today, like the minimum wage and government regulation of the stock market.
- After World War II, the economy boomed because production had been able to continue without interruption during the war. Loans to returning GIs, as well as major demand for blue-collar workers, led to prosperity for most, although farmers did not fare as well.

B. The Postindustrial Economy: Technology and Globalization

- The education pursued by the returning GIs and the desire to keep ahead of the Soviet Union technologically led to the technological revolution and the postindustrial economy. Starting in the 1980s, the production of knowledge surpassed the production of goods.

C. Corporations

- *Corporations* are essential to the functioning of the industrial and postindustrial economies. They shape the experience of employment, patterns of consumption, American and global politics, and almost every aspect of daily life. Corporate capitalism developed in four stages: family corporations, managerial corporations, institutional corporations, and multinational corporations.

D. Multinational Corporations

- *Multinational corporations* use outsourcing and offshoring to produce goods and services in ways that take advantage of the economic division between the First World and the Third World. While the success of a nation's corporations used to be tied to the nation's economic success, that is no longer necessarily the case in the age of multinational corporations.

VI. Work, Identity, and Inequality: We work fewer hours today than many of our human ancestors did. At the same time, Americans work harder and longer than people in most other countries today.

A. How We Work

- When mass production was originally created, it was designed without concern for how workers might feel while doing it. Later, it became clear that happier workers were more productive, and work processes were changed.
- Early studies of worker productivity revealed the “Hawthorne Effect,” which showed that workers are more productive when they feel valued and acknowledged as individuals.
- Management theorists developed two theories, Theory X (assuming people naturally dislike work and need to be closely managed to force them to do it) and Theory Y (assuming people naturally like work and need to be motivated and made to feel part of a team). They suggested that both theories have truth to them and that managers should use both theories at different times, depending on the circumstances.
- According to Michael Burawoy, workers work hard to make their companies rich because their managers use a process, which Burawoy calls *manufacturing consent*, which leads workers to embrace the system that exploits them.

B. Types of Jobs

- There are four main types of jobs: white-collar (professionals whose jobs involve theoretical knowledge, self-regulating practices, authority over clients, and community orientation), blue-collar (involved with production rather than knowledge), pink-collar (jobs mostly held by women and with low pay and low prestige), and service work (the lowest paid, least prestigious jobs).

C. Alternatives to Wage Labor

- People also work in various alternatives to wage labor, including working off the books, unpaid work, self-employment, part-time work, and contingent and “on call” work.

D. Unemployment

- There is always unemployment even in a smoothly-functioning economy. Social scientists distinguish among different types of unemployment: seasonal unemployment, cyclical unemployment, and structural unemployment. Globally, more people are working than ever before, but more people are also unemployed than ever before.

VII. Diversity in the Workplace: Racial/ethnic and gender diversity in the workplace will continue to increase in the future, and white men may soon be a minority in the workplace.

A. Racial Diversity

- Although racial minorities are better represented now in workplaces, their salaries still lag behind those of white workers, and they may experience the challenges of being a *token* in that workplace.

B. Gender Diversity

- The percentage of women who work outside the home is increasing worldwide. The percentage is highest in poor countries, where everyone who can work must do so in order for the family to survive. The increase in women working outside the home in the last 50 years has been called the “quiet revolution” because it has caused major, but gradual, changes in consumer patterns, workplace policies, dating and relationships, parenting, household maintenance, and self-concepts for both men and women. However, men and women are still not equal in the workplace. Sex segregation, the pay gap, and the glass ceiling are still barriers to women’s equality. Gender inequalities in responsibility for family and household duties also impede women’s success at work.

C. Sexual Diversity

- There are no federal laws to prohibit workplace discrimination against gay and lesbian people, so gay and lesbian workers often feel that they must hide their sexual orientations, and those who are out in the workplace may experience a “lavender ceiling” limiting their opportunities for advancement.

D. Working Parents

- Women, and recently some men as well, have been trying to get corporations to recognize children as a normal part of life around which workplace schedules and career paths must be organized, rather than the other way around. Evidence shows that better accommodating the needs of working parents would benefit employers.

VIII. Work and Economy in the 21st Century**Key Terms from Chapter Twelve**

capital: the resources, goods, and services managed by the economy (p. 362).

capitalism: a profit-oriented economic system based on the private and corporate ownership of the means of production and distribution (p. 369).

communism: an economic system based on collective ownership of the means of production and which is administered collectively, without a political apparatus to ensure equal distribution (p. 372).

conspicuous consumption: accumulating as many possessions as possible and showing them off in order to gain prestige (p. 364).

consumption: deciding from among the goods available (p. 364).

corporation: a business that is treated legally as an individual (p. 374).

economic system: a mechanism that deals with the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services in a particular society (p. 369).

economy: a set of institutions and relationships that manages natural resources, manufactured goods, and professional services (p. 362).

human capital: household labor and other informal work, which makes a significant impact on the economy (p. 384).

industrial economies: economies based on factory production (p. 363).

Industrial Revolution: the era of the machine, which transformed economies, politics, and social life (p. 363).

knowledge economy: an economy less oriented around the actual production of a commodity and more concerned with the idea of the commodity, its marketing, its distribution, and its relationship to different groups of consumers (p. 366).

labor union: organizations modeled after medieval guilds to redress the balance of power through collective bargaining, appealing to owners as a group (p. 381).

manufacture consent: when workers come to embrace a system that also exploited them (p. 378).

market: regular exchanges of goods and services (p. 363).

mass production: production using an assembly line to increase productivity, also called Fordism (p. 364).

multinational corporations: large corporations that operate globally and are no longer clearly located anywhere (p. 375).

outsourcing: the contracting out of work to another company that had once been done internally by your company (p. 367).

pay gap: the percentage of men's wages that women earn (p. 389).

postindustrial economies: economies characterized by knowledge work, rootlessness, and globalization (p. 366).

production: getting goods out into the market (p. 364).

race to the bottom: manufacturers and retailers will go wherever on earth they need to maximize profits by paying the lowest possible wages (p. 376).

socialism: an economic system that is the exact opposite of laissez-faire capitalism (p. 371).

token: people hired as representatives of their group rather than as individuals (p. 389).

wage labor: when, instead of being paid for the end result of their labor, workers get a regular paycheck in exchange for performing a specific task (p. 364).

Key People from Chapter Twelve

Emile Durkheim: argued that economies are a unifying force, creating strong social ties and social cohesion as a result of our interdependence (p. 362).

Karl Marx: believed that an economic system based on private property divided people into two unequal and competing classes (p. 362, 371).

Adam Smith: theorist who advocated laissez-faire capitalism, arguing that societies prosper best through individual self-interest (p. 362, 369).

Frederick Taylor: proposed making production more efficient by breaking the process up into a series of tasks for which each worker is only responsible for one specialized task (p. 364).

Thorstein Veblen: coined the term “conspicuous consumption” (p. 364-365).

Max Weber: believed that capitalism originated in a desire for personal spiritual fulfillment and to “make the world a better place” (p. 362).

Try It Exercise: Bringing Globalization Home (does not appear in text)

Modified from an activity submitted by Amy Agigian, Suffolk University

OBJECTIVE: Think about how your own life is embedded in the global processes of commerce, trade, production, and consumption.

STEP 1: Plan

Develop a written inventory of all the items you have on your person and list the country of origin. List only the labels you can easily read and access. Be prepared to share your list in class.

STEP 2: Develop

Your instructor may take a tally of how many items are from each country and place information in the classroom for everyone to see. After the tally is complete, take a few minutes to write your responses to the following questions:

1. Did anything surprise you about the list?
2. Why do you think so many goods are being produced outside the United States?
3. What impact does this have on you and your everyday life?
4. How does this affect people living in the countries where the goods are being produced? Do you think they are being paid a living wage? Why or why not?
5. What is globalization, and what role do you play in it?

STEP 3: Discuss

Be prepared to participate in a class discussion that further explores some of the questions asked above.

Instructor’s Notes: This is a quick activity that can be used in any size classroom. Students enjoy doing this activity and it is often a very good lecture launcher for this chapter. There are numerous variations of this activity and other ways of discussing this activity. Here are some to consider:

1. Assign students a small one to two page report where they choose to examine one of the companies producing an item they have on their person. This report should include information on the name of the company, locations, number of employees, CEO, how much the CEO is paid annually, and any other types of information about the company that is available. As part of the research, students should examine any issues of unfair labor practices by this particular

company. You may also want to add more specific questions asking students to examine this issue using the various sociological paradigms.

2. You may want to create some type of tally program using SPSS or Microsoft Excel in order to easily tabulate the countries noted by students in class. You can then convert these to graphic forms to show students results. This is also another good opportunity to assign a group project to students and have them enter their group findings and share results in class. This could be assigned outside of class time or during class time (depending on access to computers).

3. There are numerous books, articles and websites on globalization. The two below are often great places to start and to offer to your students for additional research and reading:

<http://www.globalization101.org/issue/>

<http://www.sociology.emory.edu/globalization/>

Try It Exercise: Assessing the Local Structure of Opportunity-Living the American Dream in Your Community (does not appear in text)

Modified from an activity submitted by Robin Kreider, Cornell University

OBJECTIVE: This activity will give you a chance to explore the local structure of opportunity for adequate employment as well as become familiar with data collection and analysis.

STEP 1: Review the chapter on economy before starting this assignment.

STEP 2: Locate a local newspaper (or use one from your home community) and search the classified advertisements for employment. Develop a chart where you present a summary of the kinds of jobs that are available including information on the average level of skill/education required and the average wage available. Most newspapers list employment opportunities in occupational categories and you can use that to summarize the information. You may want to use the following example to organize the information:

Occupational Category	Total Jobs Listed	Average Wage Advertised	Average Yrs of Exp/Education Required
Education			
Engineering			
Health Care			
General			
Continue to List all categories			
Average cost of housing _____			
Overall average wage advertised _____			
Overall average education/experience required _____			

STEP 3: Go to the following website and find out the average cost of housing per month in your area. Note it on the chart above.

http://www.epi.org/content.cfm/datazone_fambud_budget

STEP 4: Write a short essay on your findings (1 to 2 pages) reporting your findings and answering the following questions:

1. If you were to take an average job and receive the average wage available in your community would you be able to afford average rent? Explain your answer.
2. Does there appear to be enough adequate paying jobs to live comfortably in your area? (You may want to track down the unemployment rate and population figures in your area to answer this question. Your instructor will give you further instructions on how to locate this information).
3. Based on the estimated family budget for your area (see step 3), how much income would you need to get by in your community?
4. What do you think is meant by the term living wage? What would that look like in your community? How is this different from minimum wage? Explain.

STEP 5: Be prepared to turn this paper into class and discuss your results.

Instructor's Notes: In many ways, this activity relates to the activity in Chapter 7 (Living on an Impoverished Salary). You may want to think about combining these two activities into a larger project. The main difference in this activity is that it requires students to look at jobs available in the classified ads of a local newspaper. Depending on the newspaper, tabulating the chart could take some time. In order to reduce the time required to complete this assignment, you may want to assign students to groups for various categories of jobs. It would also be helpful to create an Excel file or SPSS file for the chart provided to help student enter data quickly. This can also be done by developing a chart in handout form. This activity can be done as a simple assignment by just asking students to randomly select a few jobs from each employment category or it could be a complex data analysis project done by groups. This is an activity that can be adapted to meet your course objectives and classroom needs.

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (p. 371)

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2002

Do you think that people with high incomes should pay a larger share of their income in taxes than those with low incomes, the same share, or a smaller share? In the 2002 General Social Survey, 23% of respondents said the rich should pay a much larger share of their income in taxes. Almost 44% said the rich should pay a larger share. Thirty-one percent thought the current share paid was adequate. When broken down by race, there was a significant difference between black and white respondents, with black respondents being much more likely to think that the rich should pay a much larger share of their income in taxes.

Should Rich Pay Bigger Share of Taxes by Race % 2002

	White	Black	Other	Total
Much Larger Share	20.4	32.0	29.4	23.1
Larger	45.2	39.9	36.7	43.8
Same Share	32.5	24.9	31.2	30.9
Smaller	1.4	2.2	.9	1.5
Much Lower Share	.6	.9	1.8	.7

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Why do you think the survey responses broke down by race the way they did?
2. Proponents of higher taxes for the rich generally seem to come from a more liberal point of view. Why do you think that is?
3. How do you think responses might differ if they were broken down by social class? Go to the website and check for yourself. How did your prediction compare to the data?

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (does not appear in text)**Women and Work**

Traditional gender roles dictate that men are bread-winners, and women are homemakers. But historically, working outside of the home has not been an option for working class women, it has been a necessity. With the rise and success of the feminist movement of the past several decades, attitudes about what is proper for men's and women's behavior has shifted. It's now socially acceptable, even expected, for women to work and contribute financially to the household. Shifting norms change hand-in-hand with shifting public views.

So, what do you think?

Do you approve or disapprove of a married woman earning money in business or industry if she has a husband capable of supporting her?

- a. Approve
- b. Disapprove

It is much better for everyone involved if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family.

- a. Strongly Agree
- b. Agree
- c. Disagree
- d. Strongly Disagree

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey.

Do you approve or disapprove of a married woman earning money in business or industry if she has a husband capable of supporting her.

In 1972, 65% of respondents approved of a married woman earning money. More women than men approved. In 1998, the numbers were a bit higher, with almost 77% of respondents approving, and the gender difference in response disappearing.

Should Women Work by Gender % (1972 and 1998)

	1972			1998		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Approve	62.5	68.2	65.4	76.4	77.2	76.9
Disapprove	37.5	31.8	34.65	23.6	22.8	23.1

It is much better for everyone involved if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family. In 1977, 18% of respondents strongly agreed, with slightly more men than women agreeing. Only 34% of respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed. In 2004 the numbers shifted. Only 9% of respondents strongly agreed, with no gender difference, and 58% disagreed or strongly disagreed.

Men Work, Women Home by Gender % (1977 and 1998)

	1977			2004		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Strongly Agree	19.1	17.6	18.3	9.2	9.2	9.2
Agree	49.9	45.6	47.5	35.0	31.1	32.8
Disagree	27.4	28.7	28.1	44.2	40.2	41.9
Strongly Disagree	3.7	8.1	6.1	11.6	19.5	16.0

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTION

1. Why do you think a significant number of people still think a woman's place is in her home?

Teaching Suggestions**Film**

- *The Global Assembly Line*: Although this 1980s documentary is a bit dated, it is an extremely accurate and compelling portrayal of the early days of our current wave of economic globalization, with special attention paid to how people in developing countries, especially women, both benefit from the changes and experience significant costs from them.
- *Affluenza*: This one-hour PBS film explores the social ills we are experiencing in the United States as a result of our affluence. The film explores the many results of affluence, including stress and overwork, waste, and indebtedness, and how they affect the U.S. and the world. An accompanying website (<http://www.pbs.org/kcts/affluenza/>) also offers a teacher's guide with suggestions for teaching about the film; although none are targeted to sociology, some of the ideas might be adaptable to the sociology classroom.
- *The Corporation*: This lengthy documentary is organized around "diagnosing" the "mental illness" of modern corporations. It examines how corporations were first created, why we treat them legally as individuals and what effects that practice has, and how corporations and their practices affect every aspect of our lives and our world today. Students will be able to relate the film to many of the concepts discussed in the chapter.

In-Class Activities

- *Economic Systems Myth vs. Reality*: Students often believe many myths about capitalism, communism, and socialism. Build off of the material presented in Chapter Thirteen by

asking students what they think of when they think of each type of system, and then lecture about common myths about each system and the realities that contrast to those myths. Discuss with the class the possible sources of these common myths and how believing in the myths might affect our political beliefs and international relations.

- *Applying the Concepts:* Select excerpts from Studs' Terkel's *Working*, Barbara Ehrenreich's *Nickel and Dimed*, or other books that provide first-hand accounts of the experience of a variety of types of work (see references, below). Read the excerpts aloud or have the students quickly read them individually. Use the excerpts to illustrate and discuss concepts from the chapter, such as how work (even work your students probably would never want to do) is both a source of identity and creator of inequality, the process of manufacturing consent, barriers to workplace equality, etc.

Projects, Papers, and Homework Exercises

- *Conspicuous Consumption Today:* To help students better understand Veblen's concept of conspicuous consumption, assign an excerpt from a modern approach to this concept, Juliet Schor's *The Overspent American* (see references). Ask students to write a response paper in which they discuss whether or not they agree that American consumption patterns can be accurately described as conspicuous consumption, and whether their own consumption fits this pattern. For a more substantial project, ask students to track all of their spending for a week, creating a chart in which they list the item purchased, the cost, and whether the item was a "need" or a "want." Then ask them to write a response paper analyzing their own spending habits in light of what they learned in Schor and in the textbook about conspicuous consumption, and overconsumption more generally.
- *Understanding Multinational Corporations:* To help make the concept of multinational corporations more concrete, ask each student to choose a multinational corporation (Nike, Coca-Cola, McDonalds, etc.) and research its production process. They should look for the various locations this company does business in and what aspects of the business are conducted where, as well as where the company sells its products. Provide them with a world map on which they can visually illustrate the corporation's business processes. In class, have students share their maps and discuss what they found. Use the information as a springboard for deeper discussion about multinational corporations, outsourcing, and the consequences of these practices for workers worldwide.

For Further Research and Reading

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Chapter Thirteen: Politics and Media

Chapter Summary

Politics is centrally about power and authority. Weber's three types of authority, as well as Foucault's concept of power/knowledge, help us understand how and why people follow the authority of others even when they are not being coerced.

Most political systems are either authoritarian or democratic. Both types of systems encounter some of the same challenges and problems. The political system in the United States is a two-party system, which is different from the system of most other democracies. It is shaped by interest groups, and our party affiliations are shaped by our social identities as much as by the issues.

Political change may come from within (social movements, revolutions) or without (war, terrorism). We are also engaged in political action every day, through our everyday actions. Although participation in civil society declined in the 20th century, Generation Y has shown increased (although different) involvement in this sphere, possibly signaling greater social changes when the whole generation comes of age to participate in the full range of political activities.

Sociologists examine both how the media affects us and how they reflect our society as it already is, as well as how the media both unite and divide us. Our lives are increasingly saturated with media, although the form of media and the ways we interact with it are always changing.

The line between producer and consumer of media products is increasingly blurred. Culture industries produce media objects through bureaucracy and routine the same way any other product is produced. But these objects cannot all be the same, and audiences actively interpret the texts they consume through the encoding/decoding process. We may create dominant/hegemonic, ironic, or oppositional/resistant readings of media texts, and we always interpret texts as part of interpretive communities.

The mass media may be more democratic (providing space for new, diverse voices to be expressed) and less democratic (as a result of consolidation). Advertising plays a key role in reinforcing stereotypes and oppressive ideologies.

The mass media is global, allowing us to communicate around the world and leading some to complain of cultural imperialism by the West (and the U.S. in particular).

Learning Objectives

- To be able to define the three types of authority and how one leads to the next, and how Foucault's concept of power/knowledge builds upon Weber's ideas.
- To be able to explain the difference between authoritarian and democratic political systems and to discuss different types of each.
- To be able to describe the American political system, including how it differs from other democracies and what factors shape it today.
- To be able to describe the major types of political change.
- To be able to explain how everyday life is political.
- To be able to describe civil society and how involvement in civil society has changed over time.
- To be able to explain why and how media have such an important impact on our lives.
- To be able to discuss the history of the media and major forms of mass media today.
- To be able to discuss how culture industries produce media objects and the active ways audiences consume them.
- To be able to explain how mass media are both more and less democratic.
- To be able to discuss issues of censorship and regulation of the media.
- To be able to summarize the findings of research on how violent media affect behavior.
- To be able to explain the concept of cultural imperialism and what sociological research reveals about its effects.

Chapter Outline

I. Introduction: We have more political power and political awareness than ever before, but at the same time, in some ways we have less power and are less politically engaged than in the past. We are also both more politically polarized than before, and less politically coherent. The world values democracy more than ever, but in some ways we are a less democratic world than ever.

II. Politics: Power and Authority: Politics is about *power*, *government*, and *authority*. Sociologists examine how we get power, how we use it, and why some people have so much power and others have so little. Marx argued that the amount of power we have is determined by social class—the owners of the means of production have power, while the workers have none.

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A. Class, Status, and Power

- Societies generally cannot rely solely on coercion. They must use other techniques, like persuasion and indoctrination, in addition to coercion in order to keep people in line. Weber thus argues that power is not absolute and should be examined through the lens of *authority*. According to Weber, leaders exercise three types of authority: traditional, charismatic, and legal-rational.

B. Traditional Authority

- *Traditional authority* is a stable form of authority that people may follow for hundreds or thousands of years. Its remnants still exist today in many social institutions. When major changes take place, it can upset traditional authority and lead to the emergence of charismatic authority.

C. Charismatic Authority

- *Charismatic authority* is based on the personal characteristics of the leader. Charismatic leaders are often, but not always religious prophets. Pure charisma is unstable because it is located in the personality of the individual leader, so when the leader is gone, followers are faced with a crisis. According to Weber, followers will develop a set of rules, regulations, and rituals to help the group continue after the leader is gone. In other words, charismatic authority is replaced by legal-rational authority.

D. Legal-Rational Authority

- *Legal-rational authority* is the most common form of authority in contemporary societies. Some believe that modern government would not be possible without it.

E. Power/Knowledge

- Foucault argued that we are controlled not just by power, but by *power/knowledge*: power always shapes and limits our thoughts and desires so that they correspond to the dominant ideologies of our society.

III. Political Systems: Political systems fall into two categories: authoritarian and democratic.

A. Authoritarian Systems

- *Authoritarian political systems* are ruled by a single person or small group and include monarchy, oligarchy, dictatorship, and totalitarianism.

B. Democracy

- *Democracy* puts legislative decision-making into the hands of the people rather than in a single individual or noble class. A democracy may be a *participatory democracy* (also called pure democracy) or a *representative democracy*.
- 70% of the world's countries are democracies today, and those that are not are experiencing strong pressure to become democracies.

C. Problems of Political Systems

- Both authoritarian and democratic regimes face the same types of problems: corruption, the problem of bureaucracy (which Weber argues is inherently antagonistic to democracy), and class, race, and gender inequalities in power.

D. Citizenship

- All political systems must decide who gets to participate in them, which involves in part deciding how to define citizenship. By the 20th century, most countries recognized citizenship by blood (your citizenship is determined by the citizenship of your parents) and citizenship by territory (you have citizenship in the country in which you are born). Most countries allow foreigners to become naturalized citizens if they meet certain requirements.

IV. The Political System of the United States: Individual citizens in the U.S. must band together with others in order to be able to influence policies. Because the system is so large and complex, we often do that through political parties. Most democracies have many parties, although usually only two or three dominate the legislature.

A. American Political Parties

- The U.S. has a *two-party system* and is thus an anomaly among democracies. This seems to be the case because the U.S. has a winner-take-all electoral system, so that smaller parties will not be included in the government as they are in the coalition governments created under proportional representation systems.
- For sociologists, the debate between the parties is an either/or debate, and it therefore misses the real issues. Both parties actually want to intervene in individuals' lives sometimes; the question is when and where.

B. Party Affiliation: The Politics of Race, Class, and Gender

- People are socialized into their party affiliations. Class, education, race, and gender play a major role in determining which party we affiliate with.

C. Interest Groups

- In addition to participating in political parties, people often form *interest groups* to shape politics. Interest groups increasingly focus on one political issue rather than trying to shape the whole agenda. The number of interest groups has increased as the number of controversial issues has increased, and as the Internet has made it easier for people to become involved.
- Interest groups are very visible in Washington and are often believed to have too much power and influence.
- *Political action committees* (PACs) are a controversial form of interest group that work to elect or defeat candidates based on their stance on specific issues. They generally represent the interests of large corporations and work by soliciting contributions which they then distribute to their chosen candidates.

V. Political Change: Sometimes, when people cannot achieve their political goals through normal political channels, they work outside the system. This may include internal efforts at change (social movements, revolutions) and efforts from the outside (war, terrorism).

A. Social Movements

- *Social movements* may try to change public opinion through advertising campaigns, using a celebrity spokesperson, or getting legislators' attention through sit-ins, boycotts, or other efforts.
- Social movements vary by the type of issues around which they mobilize, their level of organization, and their persistence over time. They may also change their focus, or even become political parties, over time.

B. Revolutions

- *Revolutions* are the most dramatic and unorthodox form of political change. Early sociologists believed that revolutions had either economic (e.g., Marx's *immiseration thesis*) or psychological (e.g., Parsons' mass delirium argument) causes. However, sociologists today believe that revolutions are caused by people wanting a change in leadership. They are rationally planned like any other social movement, with mobilization strategies, grievances, and specific goals in mind.
- It is not the most desperate people who revolt, as Marx had predicted—rather, it is people fully invested in the social system, who therefore have more to lose. It is people experiencing *relative deprivation* who participate in revolutions.

- Sociologists distinguish among different types of revolutionary events, including *coups d'état*, *political revolutions*, and *social revolutions*.

C. War and the Military

- There were nearly 200 wars in the 20th century, and nearly every country has its own military. The U.S. spends more on its military than any country in the world. Although the frequency of war suggests that it is an inevitable problem of human societies, research has not uncovered any circumstances which inevitably lead to war. There are five root causes of most wars: perceived threats, political objectives, “wag the dog” rationale, moral objectives, and absence of alternatives.

D. Terrorism

- *Terrorism* means using acts of violence and destruction against military or civilian targets as a political strategy. However, sometimes people use terrorism with no political goal, simply aiming to publicize their political agenda or to do as much damage to the enemy as possible.
- The regime in power may use terrorism to stifle dissent, but usually terrorism is used against the regime in power.
- Terrorism is increasingly common because of technological advances that have made it easier to acquire and produce weapons and easier for terrorist groups to communicate.
- Democratic societies are especially vulnerable to terrorism because they grant their people extensive civil liberties and have less extensive police networks than other types of societies.
- Terrorism is always a matter of definition—what gets labeled as terrorism depends on who is doing the defining.

VI. Everyday Politics: Most political activity occurs in everyday situations, not in voting or through large-scale social movements.

A. Being Political: Social Change

- According to a famous feminist statement, “the personal is political.” Every personal problem is a political problem, and we are making a political statement in the way we react. Our everyday politics have a cumulative effect by creating grassroots support for legislative change and by expressing political identity.

B. Civil Society: Declining, Increasing, or Dynamic?

- In the past 60 years, we have seen a decline in civil society, or the “third zone” between home and work.
- Civic engagement by young people in the 21st century has increased. They are less likely to participate in traditional avenues of political engagement, but are significantly involved in charitable work, using their power as consumers to influence politics, and doing hands-on activities to make political statements or contribute to causes. Young people also prefer to rally *for* something rather than protesting *against* something.

C. Politics and Media: Interdependence

- Politics and the media have a long history of interdependence stretching back to when colonial newspapers were used to publicize revolutionary ideas and drum up public support for military action. Today, political actors and media organizations engage in increasingly sophisticated relationships. The media both reflect and shape our lives.

VII. What Are the Mass Media?: *Media* are ways we communicate with each other. Technological innovations have made *mass media* possible, and they may also revive or regenerate older forms of media. Sociologists examine the access different groups with different resources have to the media.

A. Types of Mass Media

- Print media, blogs, radio, movies, TV, video games, online gambling, pornography, and the Internet are all forms of mass media. The mass media has grown since the 19th century and now dominates our daily lives. The mass media has brought us much closer to people around the world. Critics always express concerns about mass media and its effects as each form of mass media grows.

B. Saturation and Convergence: The Sociology of Media

- The Sociology of Media: Our lives today are saturated by the media. Increasingly, the media we consume are solitary rather than group experiences. In the future, we will receive all of our media on one device. In addition, media objects themselves are converging, as the same media objects now appear simultaneously in several forms (e.g., movie, TV show, and book). The cognitive demands of today’s media are greater than those of the past, contrary to common assumptions.

VIII. Media Production and Consumption: In the past, there was a fairly strict division between producers and consumers. Today, the boundary is increasingly blurred and consumers increasingly impact the media they watch.

A. Culture Industries

- Organizational structures, hierarchy, bureaucracy, and routine determine much of what ends up being produced in the mass media. *Culture industries* operate not as creative enterprises, but rather as assembly lines creating cultural products just as they might any other product for consumption. This fact helps explain why so much of the mass media is repetitive, and why so much of it promotes old-fashioned, even oppressive, ideologies.
- However, culture industries must provide some variety and difference in order to get consumers to consume their products, and audiences are not just passive consumers—they actively and creatively make sense of what they hear, see, and read.

B. Multicultural Voices

- Mass media can be more democratic, spreading ownership and consumption of media to more and more people and enabling previously voiceless minorities access to connection and visibility.

C. Media Consolidation

- Mass media can also, however, be less democratic, as those at the top can concentrate increasing amounts of media power. A small number of companies control virtually all the media in the United States today, and this consolidation raises fears about what gets produced and also about the quality and reliability of media products, particularly news. However, there are a variety of factors shaping how media giants work, and they do not all homogenize content and stifle dissent.

D. The Importance of Advertising

- Usually, ads try to associate the product with a desirable quality or activity. Most media depend on advertising to survive and profit. Since most forms of mass media (e.g., TV) are free or cheap, ads pay for most of the cost of production as well as the profits. In general, the more a medium depends on advertising for its revenue, the more it will shy away from challenging preconceptions and stereotypes. The stereotypes reinforced in advertising are even more important in the case of advertising than in other media messages, because we consume many more ads than anything else.

E. Celebrities

- Celebrities are among the most popular media products. Celebrities were created by mass media, and they are famous not just because of their talent but because they appear so often in mass media texts that audiences feel that they know them personally. Increasingly, we see “faux celebrities” who are just “famous for being famous.”

IX. Consuming Media, Creating Identity

- Consumers use media for their own ends, and it is through media consumption that we know who we are and where we fit in society. Consumers have five broad goals in consumption: surveillance (finding out what the world is like), decision-making (acquiring enough information on a subject to make a decision), aesthetics, diversion, and identity.
- There is no single reading of a text, and no particular reading is “correct.”
- We always interpret media texts within an *interpretive community*. Sometimes, interpretive communities produce *fans*.

X. Globalization of the Media: The mass media have become global in nature. But the question remains whether we have achieved the *global village* that Marshall McLuhan predicted.

A. What Is Media Globalization?

- There are two dimensions to media globalization: technological innovation that allows us to communicate instantaneously over vast distances, and the availability of the same cultural products around the world. Commercial interests, not humanitarian ideals, drive media globalization.

B. Cultural Imperialism

- The media products of the West, especially of the United States, are so dominant in global markets that some sociologists call it *cultural imperialism* (cultural control of one country by another). This involves not just dominance of rich countries over poor ones; American media dominates in Europe and Canada as well. Critics are bothered by this dominance because they believe it will lead to the Westernization of all cultures and the spread of American values to all societies, eroding cultural distinctiveness. In fact, however, this argument only partially explains what occurs when foreign audiences consume American media products.

C. New Media, New Voices

- Thanks to developments such as satellite TV and the Internet, local groups have a voice they never had before, even when local governments have strict control over media access.

XI. Politics and Media in the 21st Century

Key Terms from Chapter Thirteen

authoritarian political system: system in which power is vested in a single person or small group (p. 401).

authority: power that is perceived as legitimate by both the holder of power and those subject to it (p. 398).

blog: an online personal journal or diary where an author can air his or her opinions directly to audiences (p. 419).

bureaucracy: levels created between the people and decision-making in large and complex societies (p. 404).

charismatic authority: a type of power in which people obey because of the personal characteristics of the leader (p. 399).

civil society: the clubs, churches, fraternal organizations, civic organizations, and other groups that once formed a third “zone” between home and work (p. 416).

coup d'état: a revolutionary event that replaces one political leader with another but often doesn't bring about any change in the daily life of the citizens (p. 412).

cultural imperialism: cultural control of one country by another (p. 433).

culture industries: the mass production of cultural products that are offered for consumption (p. 426).

democracy: system that puts legislative decision-making into the hands of the people rather than a single individual or a noble class (p. 402).

dictatorship: rule by one person who has no hereditary claim to rule (p. 401).

fan: someone who finds significant personal meaning through allegiance to a larger social group; in the media, refers to a heightened awareness of and allegiance toward a specific text (p. 431).

global village: term coined by Marshall McLuhan to refer to an environment in which people everywhere could make their voices heard to one another, thus bringing the world closer together (p. 432).

government: the organization and administration of the actions of the inhabitants of communities, societies, and states (p. 398).

immiseration thesis: Marx's theory that people get more and more miserable until they lash out in a revolution (p. 411).

interest group: groups formed by individuals, organizations, and industries to promote their interests among state and national legislators and often to influence public opinion (p. 408).

interpretive community: groups that guide interpretation and convey the preferred meanings of mass media texts (p. 431).

legal-rational authority: a type of power in which people obey leaders because they are voicing a set of rationally-derived laws (p. 399).

mass media: ways to communicate with vast numbers of people at the same time, usually over a great distance (p. 417).

media: the ways we communicate with each other (p. 417).

media consolidation: the increased control of an increasing variety of media by a smaller and smaller number of companies (p. 427).

monarchy: rule by a single individual; one of the first political systems (p. 401).

oligarchy: rule by a small group of people, an elite social class and often a single family (p. 401).

participatory democracy: also known as pure democracy; a system in which every person gets one vote and the majority rules (p. 403).

political action committee (PAC): a controversial type of interest group that works to elect or defeat candidates based on their stance on specific issues (p. 410).

political party: groups that band together to petition for political changes or to support candidates to elected office (p. 407).

political revolution: revolutionary event that changes the political groups that run the society but still draws its strength from the same social groups that supported the old regime (p. 412).

politics: the art and science of government (p. 398).

power: the ability to make people do what you want them to do (p. 398).

proportional representation: system in which each party receives a proportion of the legislative seats (p. 405).

relative deprivation: term to describe how misery is socially experienced by constantly comparing yourself to others (p. 412).

representative democracy: system in which citizens elect representatives to make decisions for them (p. 403).

revolution: the attempt to overthrow the existing political order and replace it with a completely new one (p. 411).

social movements: collective attempts to further a common interest or secure a common goal through action outside the sphere of established institutions (p. 410).

social revolution: a revolutionary event that changes the social groups or classes that political power rests on (p. 412).

terrorism: using acts of violence and destruction against military or civilian targets (or threatening to use them) as a political strategy (p. 413).

totalitarianism: system when political authority is extended over all other aspects of social life (p. 402).

traditional authority: a type of power that draws its legitimacy from tradition (p. 399).

two-party system: political system the United States was founded on, with only two major political parties (p. 407).

universal suffrage: voting for all adults, both men and women (p. 403).

Key People from Chapter Thirteen

Michel Foucault: French philosopher who developed the concept of power/knowledge as a new way of seeing power (p. 400).

Max Weber: examined the dynamics of class, status, and power and developed the concept of the three types of authority (p. 399).

Try It Exercise: Exploring Women and Politics in the United States and the World (does not appear in text)

Developed by Katherine R. Rowell, Sinclair Community College

OBJECTIVE: Examine the issue of women and politics in the United States and the world.

STEP 1: Plan

You will need access to the Internet or library resources to complete this activity. You will also want to use a search engine like Google to find the information required for this activity.

STEP 2: Research

1. Using various sources, find out what countries do not allow women to vote (include only those countries that allow men to vote). Make a list of these countries and note your sources and date of the information. Did anything surprise you, or did you note any type of pattern?
2. Using various resources, identify how many countries have had a woman as the head of state in the past 10 years. List the country, the name of the leader, and the dates for which she held office (include those in leadership currently). Also, make a list of how many U.S. senators, congressional representatives, and governors are women. Again, provide a citation for your sources.

STEP 3: Review and Reflect

After reviewing the information you gathered in steps 2 and 3, take a moment to write a brief reflection (paragraph) on what impact that gender stratification and socialization has on the role women play in government in the United States and in the world. Do you think the role women play in government is changing? Why or why not?

STEP 4: Discuss

Be prepared to share the information from previous steps in class.

Instructor's Notes: This activity will take time to research and complete. You may want to divide up the various parts of this assignment and have different groups of students examine different topics. For example, one group would examine the issue of suffrage for women in the world, another group would examine leadership in the United States, and another group explores the issue of women leaders in the world. There are numerous online resources for this activity and this may be a good time to discuss and explore issues of reliable sources. In order to save time, you may want to give students the websites they will be using for the activity. Here are a few good websites for this activity:

<https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/fields/2123.html>

<http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/>

<http://www.onlinewomeninpolitics.org/statistics.htm>

<http://www.idea.int/gender/>

Try It Exercise: Exploring the Issue of Corruption in the World (does not appear in text)

Developed by Katherine R. Rowell, Sinclair Community College

OBJECTIVE: This activity will give you an opportunity to examine the issue of corruption in the world and to explore the ways indices are used as measurement tools.

STEP 1: Review the chapter on politics and government before starting this assignment.

STEP 2: You will need access to the Internet and will be using the following website for this learning activity: <http://www.transparency.org/>. Please note that your instructor may choose to assign this activity as a group project or as an individual project.

STEP 3: Take some time to review the different types of measures used by this organization. Briefly explain what is meant by the following: corruption perceptions index (CPI), global corruption barometer (GCB) and the bribe payers index (BPI). Be sure to include in your discussion detailed information on how each of these issues are measured by this organization.

STEP 4: After exploring the three indexes, choose one to research in more detail and write a two to three page paper explaining what this index is measuring. Be sure to include a list of the top ten countries and the bottom ten countries on the index you chose. Also, note anything that surprised you by doing this project. You will want to be able to explain to the class what the scores mean and how to interpret the scores.

STEP 5: Be prepared to share and discuss your findings in class.

Instructor's Notes: You should review this website and this activity prior to assigning it to students. This activity works well as an out of class activity. It is also a great opportunity to discuss issues of how concepts are operationalized. You may want to print out the various indices available on this website and have students discuss the advantages and disadvantages of each index. This activity does require knowledge of the chapter and you may want to use some classroom time to help students understand this particular website and how it relates to this chapter. It might be useful to also ask students to connect this topic back to the sociological paradigms.

Here is the website again to review:

<http://www.transparency.org/>

Try It Exercise: Media Literacy and Sociology (does not appear in text)

Developed by Katherine R. Rowell, Sinclair Community College

OBJECTIVE: Learn about the issue of media literacy and apply some basic principles while using a sociological lens.

Directions:

STEP 1: Review

Spend some time reviewing what is meant by media literacy by exploring the website created by the Center for Media Literacy at: www.medialit.org/about_cml.html

STEP 2: Research

Choose one type of media (books, newspapers, movies, advertisements, music, websites, and the like) to explore further using the five key questions of media literacy as noted by the Center for Media literacy. Then find three examples of this media type to analyze (for example, if you choose to explore websites, you will need to analyze three different sites; or, if you choose movies, you will need to analyze three different movies). Then answer the following questions (developed by the Center for Media Literacy, 2005) for each one:

1. Who created this message? (For example, who created this movie, book, or the like?)
2. What creative techniques are used to attract my attention?
3. How might other people understand this message differently than I do?
4. What values, lifestyles, and points of view are represented in, or omitted from, this message?
5. Why is this message being sent?

STEP 3: Analyze

Compare and contrast the following information to your textbook (be sure to look over the conclusion to the chapter again): How do the five core concepts of media literacy compare to the sociological perspective of media? How are they similar? How are they different? Why are both perspectives important in understanding the media? Do you think media literacy is important? Why or why not? You will need to write your responses to this step in a one-page paper. The Center for Media Literacy argues that there are also five core concepts of media literacy

1. All media messages are constructed.
2. Media messages are constructed using a creative language with its own rules.
3. Different people experience the same media message differently.
4. Media have embedded values and points of view.
5. Most media messages are organized to gain profit and/or power.

STEP 4: Discuss

Be prepared to share the information from steps 2 through 4 in class. Your instructor will inform you of any other expectations.

Instructor's Notes: This activity should help students apply some of the information provided in this chapter. There are several additional topics that could be explored. As with many of the activities, you could use this as an opportunity to integrate data analysis by having students analyze the PBS survey noted in this activity. For step 3, you may want to be specific about the types of media you want the students to analyze. For example, you may want to assign just

television or newspapers. This activity can also be shortened by excluding some of the steps. Steps 2-5 can easily be adapted to smaller media literacy assignments that could be done in class. Step 5 requires the most critical analysis and would work well as an in-class assignment.

Try It Exercise: Exploring Fairness and Accuracy in the News

Developed by Katherine R. Rowell, Sinclair Community College

OBJECTIVE: This activity will give you a chance to examine the accuracy and fairness of the news.

STEP 1: Review the chapter on media before starting this assignment.

STEP 2: You will need to access the Internet in order to complete this assignment. You will be exploring the organization known as Fairness and Accuracy in Reporting for this activity (FAIR). You will find most of the information you need for this activity at the following website: <http://www.fair.org/index.php>

STEP 3: Take a moment to answer the following questions (your instructor may collect these):

1. What is this organization about?
2. According to this organization what is wrong with the news?
3. Do you agree or disagree with their statements? Why or Why not?
4. Do you think a sociologist would agree or disagree? Explain.

STEP 4: Using this website, explore a particular issue further and identify one particular issue (story) that was examined by this organization. Answer the following questions about the issue (Again, write out your responses and be prepared to submit in class):

1. What issue did you choose to explore further?
2. What particular story or link do you read about?
3. What did you learn about this issue from this organization?
4. Did anything surprise you? Why or Why not?

STEP 5: Pick up a local newspaper or school newspaper and bring to class along with your responses to steps 3 and 4. Be prepared to further discuss and analyze new stories in your community using the criteria noted as what is wrong with the news in Step 2.

Instructor's Notes: This activity is related to the activity included in the Kimmel book in Chapter 18. It is also discussed in the chapter. This activity does require access to the Internet but it may be possible to make handouts of the materials from FAIR and provide to students along with newspaper articles. Rather than assign this activity, you may want to choose a particular issue from the FAIR website and have a class discussion over the issue. There are numerous current issues and it can make for a lively classroom debate.

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (does not appear in text)
International Organizations and American Governmental Power

The twenty-first century has been marked by globalization and the rise of multinational corporations and organizations. These organizations include the World Trade Organization, the North American Free Trade Organization, and the United Nations, among others. Some feel that by participating in these organizations, the United States government gives too much power away, putting said power squarely in the hands of the international organizations. Others feel that our participation in these organizations is vital to our well-being as a nation. So, what do you think?

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statement?

International organizations are taking away too much power from the American government.

- a. Strongly Agree
- b. Agree
- c. Neither Agree nor Disagree
- d. Disagree
- e. Strongly Disagree

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2004.

International organizations are taking away too much power from the American government. Only nine percent of respondents in the 2004 General Social Survey strongly agreed with this statement. Another twenty-six percent agreed. Those from the lower class were most likely to agree (39.1%). Thirty percent of respondents disagreed, and only three percent strongly disagreed. Those in the upper class were most likely to disagree (53%).

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What role, if any, do you think international organizations should play in decisions made by the United States Government? How would you explain a social-class difference in response to this question?
2. Why do you think political party affiliation often correlates with social class? What party-associated values or beliefs might contribute to one's view on the power of international organizations?

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (does not appear in text)
Government and Standard of Living

Some people think that the government in Washington should do everything possible to improve the standard of living of all poor Americans; they are at Point 1 on this card. Other people think it is not the government's responsibility, and that each person should take care of himself; they are at Point 5.

A. So, what do you think? Where would you place yourself on this scale, or haven't you made up your mind on this?

1. Gov't Action
2. .
3. Agree With Both
4. .
5. People Help Selves

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2004.

Some people think that the government in Washington should do everything possible to improve the standard of living of all poor Americans; they are at Point 1 on this card. Other people think it is not the government's responsibility, and that each person should take care of himself; they are at Point 5. A. Where would you place yourself on this scale, or haven't you have up your mind on this? Only seventeen percent of respondents picked the first choice, government action. There was a huge disparity between those in the lower and upper classes, though. Most respondents agreed that both the government and the individual were responsible for improving the standard of living.

Table: Should Government Improve Standard of Living by Social Class % 2004

	Lower Working		MiddleUpper		Total
1 Gov't Action	40.0	20.1	11.7	2.0	16.8
2	5.3	10.5	9.3	17.1	9.8
3 Agree with Both	38.2	49.0	46.5	45.1	47.1
4	6.1	11.2	20.1	22.0	15.4
5 People Help Selves	10.4	9.1	12.4	13.7	10.9

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. The disparity between lower and upper class respondents with regard to opinions on this question is very large. What do you think explains this disparity?
2. Where do you place yourself on the social class ladder? How does your position inform your own opinion on improving standard of living?
3. Why are some people so quick to blame the poor for their poverty?

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (p.421)**Confidence in Press**

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2004

As far as the people running the Press are concerned, would you say you have a great deal of confidence, only some confidence, or hardly any confidence at all in them? The GSS survey results for 2004 indicate that almost forty-four percent of the population has hardly any confidence in the press. Almost half of respondents only had some confidence in the press. Those in the upper class were most likely to reporting having a great deal of confidence in the press and at the same time were also the group most likely to report having very little confidence in the press. The percentage of respondents reporting confidence in the press has steadily declined since 1972 for all social class categories.

Confidence in Press by Class %

	Lower Working		MiddleUpper		Total
A Great Deal	11.5	9.7	7.1	15.2	8.7
Only Some	40.5	43.3	54.6	20.7	47.8
Hardly Any	47.9	47.0	38.4	64.1	43.5

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTION

1. Take a good look at the social class differences in responses. They are complex. How do you explain them?

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (does not appear in text)**Free Press**

Many people think it is important to have complete freedom of the press and news media in the United States. Others think the press too often invades the privacy of public figures like Senators or members of Congress by printing stories that contain personal details about their private lives. So, what do you think?

Which of these three statements comes closest to your feelings about balancing freedom of the press and the right to privacy?

- a. There should complete freedom of the press, even if the press sometimes invades the privacy of public figures
- b. The press should develop a code of ethics to keep it from invading the privacy of public

- figures
- c. The government should keep the press from printing stories that invade the privacy of public figures

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2002

Which of these three statements comes closest to your feelings about balancing freedom of the press and the right to privacy? In the 2000 General Social Survey, just over twenty percent of respondents felt there should be complete freedom of the press, even if the press sometimes invades the privacy of public figures. Sixty-four percent of the respondents felt the press should develop a code of ethics to keep it from invading the privacy of public figures. Almost fifteen percent of respondents thought the government should keep the press from printing stories that invade the privacy of public figures. Respondents who identified as lower class were least likely to support complete freedom of the press.

Table: Free Press by Social Class %

	Lower Working		Middle Upper		Total
Complete Freedom	16.7	20.0	23.1	21.6	21.3
Code of Ethics	56.9	62.5	66.4	62.7	64.0
Government Censoring	26.4	17.4	10.5	15.7	14.7

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTION

1. Respondents in the middle class were least likely to favor government censoring of the press, while those in the lower class were most likely to favor it. How do you explain these social class differences?

Teaching Suggestions

Film

- *Ghosts of Rwanda*: This two-hour documentary about the genocide in Rwanda focuses on the actions of the United States, the United Nations, and non-governmental organizations like the Red Cross during and after the genocide. Besides being a powerful illustration of a contemporary genocide, which is a concept mentioned elsewhere in the textbook, the film provides a concrete way to discuss issues around the globalization of political power and authority and the strengths and weaknesses of international organizations, issues raised in the “What Does America Think” feature (page 00) of this chapter.

- *Dreamworlds II*: This classic film uses clips from MTV videos and from the gang rape scene in the film *The Accused* to make a powerful argument about the way our culture, as expressed in our mass media, encourages sexual violence. The videos are from the 1980s and 1990s and are therefore a bit dated, which may cause some students to reject or question the argument, but it is still quite effective. The filmmakers have recently released *Dreamworlds III*, which uses updated footage and could be more effective since students will be familiar with the clips used. The research reported in the text at least partially contradicts the film's arguments, so it would be a useful way to discuss varying perspectives on the issue and the use of data to settle such debates.
- *Trekkies*: This entertaining documentary would be an effective tool to help students explore the concept of fandom.

In-Class Activities

- *Earning American Citizenship*: Before class, find information about the types of questions people must answer in order to pass the exam to become a United States citizen. Present these questions, and the other citizenship requirements, to the class and lead a discussion about what we should require of someone to become a citizen of our country and why.
- *Guest Speaker*: Invite a guest speaker to class to talk to your students about what it is like to live in a country that is not a democracy. This could be an academic expert on the subject or someone who has actually had this experience him or herself and can talk about it from a personal perspective. If you have a diverse class, you may have students who have also had this experience and who could add further personal experiences to the discussion.
- *Politics and Generation Y*: In class, have students read Anna Greenberg's article (see references) on how Generation Y approaches politics and political issues. (The article will build upon the textbook's discussion of how Generation Y involves itself in civil society and social change efforts.) Lead students in a discussion of their own involvement in politics and whether they believe Greenberg correctly evaluates their generation. Provide additional lecture material, video clips, etc. to discuss how some previous generations approached politics (especially Generation X and the young people of the 1960s).
- *Analyzing Advertising*: The authors argue that advertising more often tries to associate the product with a desirable quality or activity than it focuses on discussing the actual qualities of the product. To explore this idea further, bring a set of popular magazines to class, and/or a set of TV commercials you can show. As a whole class or with the students in small groups, examine the ads and assess the extent to which they focus on "image" versus product facts. Do your findings support the textbook's claim? Are particular types of products more likely to take one or the other approach (for example, perhaps there are differences according to the cost of the product, or according to the target audience)? Which type of advertising seems more effective and why? You might

also take the discussion further by examining the ideological messages present in the “image”-based ads. Discuss whether this advertising seems to be encouraging audiences to buy into the status quo and dominant ideology, or not.

Projects, Papers, and Homework Exercises

- *Alternatives to the Two-Party System:* Ask students to use the Internet to research the platforms of the Democratic and Republican Parties. Have them also research the platforms of two or three other American political parties, such as the Green Party, the Libertarian Party, or the Constitution Party. In class, discuss the students’ findings. Then, lecture on the two-party system and the winner-takes-all election system in the United States, and on alternative systems used elsewhere. Discuss the pros and cons of each type of system, including how they affect the accuracy of popular representation and the quality of public policy.
- *Economic and Political Causes of Terrorism:* Ask students to read Sikkink’s article (see references) on the political and economic conditions that are often a precursor to terrorism. Have them then choose a country currently seen as a source or location of terrorist activity (for example, Iran) and research whether and how these factors describe the situation in that country. Discuss student’s findings in class and use their research and Sikkink’s article as a basis for discussing ways that the United States and/or the international community could address the preconditions of terrorism.
- *Activism Experience/Contemporary Social Movements:* Students are often vaguely familiar with a few social movements, such as the civil rights movement, but know little about how any social movement actually works and often think that social movements are a thing of the past. Further, they may believe that activists are strange people unlike themselves or anyone they know. To help challenge these assumptions and to give students a more concrete understanding of the textbook’s discussion of social movements and being political, ask students to explore activism using either a hands-on or a book-learning approach. For a hands-on approach, have students attend a protest or political rally. Ask them to carefully observe the people there, the activities that take place, and the ideas advocated. Have them interview a few people there about how they got involved and what they believe about the issues the rally is about. Have students write a reflective paper about their experience and report their experiences in class. Or, for a book-learning approach, have students choose a social movement (e.g., the feminist movement, the animal rights movement, the environmentalist movement, etc.) or an activist organization (e.g., the National Organization for Women, People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals, etc.) to research. Again, have students write a paper about their findings and how the movement or group compared to what they expected before their research, and ask them to share their findings with the class. As a class, discuss the findings overall and how our perceptions of activism and social movements are similar to, or different from, reality.

- *Project Censored*: The authors discuss the fact that as the media become increasingly consolidated, many observers have raised concerns about the objectivity and diversity of views expressed in the news industry. To examine this question further, have students visit Project Censored (<http://www.projectcensored.org/>), an organization dedicated to uncovering media stories the mainstream news has neglected to fully cover. Have students examine the current year's "Top 25 Censored Stories" and write a response paper. In class, discuss whether they feel these stories are important, whether they agree that the stories have been neglected by the mainstream media, and what patterns they can see in which stories are and are not reported widely.
- *Minorities in the Media*: The authors discuss research revealing that prime-time television contains few minority characters and that the portrayals of minority groups are often stereotypical and negative. Ask students to do their own research to assess this issue. As a class, identify issues students should be looking for and develop a coding scheme for students to use while they watch. Have them examine both quantitative issues (how many characters of color are there? Are they major or minor characters? etc.) and qualitative issues (what impression is the viewer meant to get about this character?). Have each student choose a prime-time show to watch and assess according to these guidelines. In class, have students report on their findings and discuss as a class whether your results lead you to the same conclusions as those reported in the text.

For Further Research and Reading

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Chapter Fourteen: Education

Chapter Summary

Education is both a path to social mobility and one of the major ways that our society reproduces social inequalities of class, race/ethnicity, and gender. Education is a social institution teaching both its manifest curriculum and a hidden curriculum.

The U.S. was one of the first countries to work toward universal public education. Class, race, and gender inequalities can be seen in education globally as well as within the U.S. As we examine the content of education, scholars have identified multiple types of intelligence and types of literacy necessary for an educated citizenry.

A variety of factors shape the inequalities in our educational system today, including funding disparities, bilingual education, tracking, teacher behavior, the hidden curriculum, and peer bullying. Federal laws, privatization, and homeschooling are all school reform efforts that also shape education in the U.S.

Higher education in the U.S. continues the funneling process of our entire educational system. More students attend college today, college degrees are more necessary now than they were in the past, and students are working harder than ever before. For-profit universities are providing competition and leading to the marketization of all levels of U.S. education.

Learning Objectives

- To be able to explain how education is both a route to social mobility and a mechanism for maintaining social inequalities.
- To be able to define and give examples of the hidden curriculum in education.
- To be able to discuss the history of education.
- To be able to discuss inequalities in education globally.
- To be able to discuss the debates around multiple intelligences and cultural literacy.
- To be able to describe how various factors, such as tracking and bilingual education, relate to education and inequality.
- To be able to describe the history of higher education and current issues in student life and marketization.

Chapter Outline

I. Introduction: Education is the “great equalizer,” working through meritocracy and allowing the best to rise to the top, but at the same time, it also works to maintain your position in the social hierarchy. Education is also both intrinsically valuable and teaches skills necessary to get jobs.

II. The Sociology of Education

A. Education as a Social Institution

- *Education* is a social institution through which society provides its members with important knowledge. The manifest function of education is the subject matter being taught. The latent functions are the norms, values, and goals that accrue because we are immersed in a specific social milieu. Sociologists call this the *hidden curriculum*. In addition, education establishes relationships and social networks, locating people within social classes and allowing the U.S. to work as a *credential society* in which gatekeepers restrict important and lucrative jobs to a small segment of the society.

B. The History of Education

- For most of human history, there were no schools. Parents taught necessary skills or hired tutors. In many cultures, schools developed out of a need to train religious leaders. They were organized such that only the wealthy could afford to take advantage of them, even though they were technically free and open to all.
- The U.S. was among the first countries in the world to set a goal of education for all its citizens, believing that an educated citizenry was necessary for democracy to function. A free public education movement began in 1848, all states mandated education by 1918, and today 70% of Americans have high school diplomas. The topics of study expanded over time, as well as the needs of industry changed, and necessary work skills became more differentiated. At the same time, teaching abstract concepts and disciplines gave students the cultural background to be in the middle class.
- Although the U.S. has high levels of education at the college level, we also have more dropouts and underpreparedness at the high school level than any other industrialized economy. Further, some groups have enjoyed more educational success than others. The educational system produces a funneling effect.

III. Education and Globalization: Education is closely tied to economic success worldwide. The education many children receive in poorer countries is limited only to skills needed for practical tasks. There is considerable inequality in educational opportunity worldwide. Gender

also determines educational opportunity. As a result, the literacy rate is very low in poor countries. A number of developing nations have begun major efforts to improve education, but they still experience problems like high dropout rates.

A. Intelligence(s) and Literacy

- IQ tests predict success in school, but some scholars argue that they are actually measuring the social, economic, and ethnic differences that correlate with success rather than intelligence itself. Howard Gardner argues that intelligence is not a single characteristic. Rather, it is a set of skills that make it possible for a person to solve problems in life, the potential for finding or creating solutions for problems, and the ability to create an effective product or offer a service that is valued in a culture. Gardner has identified eight types of intelligence: linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, musical, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and naturalist.

B. Cultural Literacy

- Some argue that there are certain pieces of information that all educated people should know, and that current school curricula that emphasize diversity focus on trivia rather than the core background children need to be effective citizens. However, most of the knowledge advocated by such scholars is elite Western knowledge, and one could argue that much of it is not any more important than other knowledge not included in the “core” these scholars advocate.
- Some scholars are also concerned with Americans’ level of *scientific literacy*, the low level of which undermines our ability to take part in the democratic process.

IV. Education and Inequality: In both the U.S. and other countries, the higher your level of education, the greater your income will likely be. Men at all levels of education earn more than equally educated women, and whites earn more than racial and ethnic minorities, but differences in levels of income between levels of education still remain. The question is whether this is because better-educated people get paid more, or because upper-class people have the resources to get their children further in their educations, and because they value education and therefore push their children more.

A. Education and Mobility

- Education has been a vehicle for mobility for some, but it is also one of the main ways that society reinforces social inequalities based on race, ethnicity, class, and gender. It is not a strict meritocracy, but when we believe that it is, we blame lack of achievement on the personal characteristics of the individuals involved rather than seeing the hidden curriculum that creates social inequalities and makes them seem normal and inevitable.

B. Inequality and the Structure of Education

- Uneven distribution of resources between public and private schools, wealthy and poor school districts, and racially segregated schools causes significant differences in student achievement.

C. Bilingual Education

- Until the 1960s, all school instruction took place in English. In 1968, Congress began programs to help students who were not native English speakers address language deficiencies. Critics have argued these programs are inefficient and ineffective, but the debate often boils down to support for or opposition to multiculturalism in our society. Research shows that these programs do help students learn English.

D. Tracking

- Most American schools do not have formal tracking but still have various ways of sorting students by ability and achievement. Strong labeling occurs based on this tracking, and this often creates a *self-fulfilling prophecy*.

E. Schooling for Gender Identity—and Inequality

- The hidden curriculum of schools, including teachers' behavior and curricular content, reinforces gender stereotypes and gender inequality. There have been major improvements to these issues in recent years, but gender issues remain in schooling. Peers play a major role in teaching other children to conform to “appropriate” gendered behavior during the school years. Teasing and bullying, often a part of maintaining gender conformity, has become a national problem.

F. School Reform

- School reform aims to make schools more responsive to the people they are intended to serve.

G. Privatization

- *Privatization* has been one of the most popular types of school reform during the past few decades. The two types of privatization are vouchers and charter schools. Vouchers have been controversial, with some states approving them and others voting them down. Charter schools are popular, but the evidence does not show that they work, and they are more racially segregated than public schools.

H. Homeschooling

- Homeschooling has increased greatly in recent years. Parents choose to homeschool because of concerns about the environment of traditional schools, to provide religious or moral instruction missing in traditional schools, and, for a smaller number of parents, because they were dissatisfied with the academic instruction at the other schools. Homeschooling is a phenomenon of the politically far left and the far right.

I. No Child Left Behind

- The Bush administration passed this law in 2002. It includes some revolutionary changes and is very expensive to administer. It is also difficult to enforce, and teachers and school districts complain that many of its provisions are counterproductive to achieving quality education and helping the students who most need help. The administration argues that the program is successful, but different measures suggest otherwise.

V. The Sociology of Higher Education: Until the mid-1900s, college degrees were unnecessary for most Americans. After World War II, the GI Bill gave many returning soldiers the opportunity to attend college, and most were the first in their families to do so. Some studied traditional liberal arts fields, but many sought out career-oriented fields. Employers had so many qualified applicants to choose from that they began to require college degrees even for entry-level jobs. Majors and career paths became more specialized. Most college students still major in the liberal arts fields, but job-oriented majors are very popular.

A. Preparing for College

- Student readiness and achievement upon entering college are both low, with American student performance falling behind the performance of students in many other countries. This lack of preparation can lead to difficulty in graduating college in four years, and the four-year track is even less likely given that many more students today work part- or full-time while attending college. However, there is also some evidence that American students are just as prepared as they ever were, and the rest of the world is simply catching up.

B. Higher Education and Inequality

- Higher education continues the “funneling” process of the entire education system. The class barrier to higher education is increasing, and not just at elite colleges.

C. Student Life

- College students have often been criticized for being lazy, avoiding school work, and spending all their time partying. Recent research demonstrates that

most students are extremely busy and working harder than ever, and that college life today does lack a sense of campus community and the casual discussions of academic ideas that marked college life in earlier eras.

VI. Education, Inc.

A. For-Profit Universities

- *For-profit universities* have advantages over traditional universities (fewer costs, the university owns the curriculum, students can graduate relatively quickly) but also disadvantages (lack of social activities, limited facilities, less prestige to their degrees). Despite the disadvantages, many students are focused on learning job-related skills, and many are nontraditional students (working adults not in the 18-22 age bracket), so these universities, which cater to these kinds of interests, are increasingly popular.

B. The Marketization of Higher Education

- Traditional universities are increasingly “marketized” as they must compete with for-profit universities.

C. McSchool

- Marketization is also spreading to elementary and secondary schools (e.g., the food industry taking over school lunch programs, or corporate money funding a variety of school initiatives that can't be funded by the state). Corporate logos can now be seen throughout our schools.

VII. Education in the 21st Century

Key Terms from Chapter Fourteen

charter schools: publicly funded elementary or secondary schools that set forth in their founding document (charter) goals they intend to meet in terms of student achievement, in return for which they are privately administered and are exempt from certain laws regarding education (p. 455).

credential society: term used to describe the fact that in the United States, credentials such as diplomas, degrees, and certificates are necessary to qualify for jobs and determine your identity (p. 440).

education: a social institution through which society provides its members with important knowledge (p. 440).

for-profit university: a recently-developed alternative to traditional universities (p. 461).

hidden curriculum: ideas education teaches under the surface of overt subject matter (p. 440).

integration: a balanced ethnic distribution in schools (p. 450).

scientific literacy: the knowledge and understanding of the scientific concepts and processes required for personal decision-making, participation in civic and cultural affairs, and economic productivity (p. 447).

segregation: requiring white and non-white students living in the same district to attend separate schools (p. 450).

self-fulfilling prophecy: phenomenon in which when you expect something to happen, it usually does (p. 451).

tracking: grouping students according to their ability and achievement (p. 451).

voucher system: system that uses taxpayer funds to pay for students' tuition at private schools (p. 454).

Key People from Chapter Fourteen

Howard Gardner: psychologist who argues that intelligence is not a single characteristic (p. 445-446).

Try It Exercise: Developing an Educational Profile (does not appear in text)

Developed by Katherine R. Rowell, Sinclair Community College.

OBJECTIVE: Develop an educational profile for one of the 50 states using Kids Count data from the Annie E. Casey Foundation.

STEP 1: Plan

Imagine the following scenario: You have just been asked to serve as an educational consultant to the new governor of your state. As part of your first duty, you have been asked to brief the governor on the state of education for children through high school (another person is working on the college report). The governor needs brief detailed information to make some decisions about funding and policy. Your instructor may assign each student in your class a state to explore for this activity; others may identify teams of students to work on one state. Your assignment is to create a detailed educational profile for your state. In other words, in as much detail as possible develop a visual and statistical educational profile of your assigned state and be prepared to share your information with your classmates. (There are numerous methods of presenting this information, and your instructor may require a brief report or a PowerPoint presentation.)

STEP 2: Research

Most if not all the information that you may need for this profile can be found on the Annie E. Casey Foundation website. Explore this website to develop your educational profile to be submitted to the governor. Please note that while this website has a lot of educational data, you may also want to check the Internet for additional government-specific resources from your specific assigned state.

STEP 3: Discuss

Present your profile in class. As noted in Step 2, there may be various methods of presenting this profile. Some instructors may ask you to submit a written report, others may expect a brief presentation, and some may ask you to submit a PowerPoint presentation that can be posted for students in your class to read at a later time. After completing the educational profile, take a moment to answer the following question and submit with your final report: What policy changes would you recommend to the governor? Be sure to explain your thoughts.

Instructor's Notes: There are several activities in this book designed to help students integrate data analysis into the introductory sociology curriculum. It is always possible to also tie these assignments to understanding the major sociological paradigms. After each data analysis assignment, you may want to ask students to think about how each paradigm might look at the particular issue. This could be part of a broader class discussion. This particular activity can be shortened by asking students to just look up a few issues for each state or it could be lengthened by requiring a more formal report and class presentation. You may want to create more specific directions and guidelines for this particular activity. Here are some additional websites that you may wish to share with students (they all have excellent national educational data):

<http://nces.ed.gov/programs/stateprofiles/>
<http://www.statemaster.com/index.php>
<http://www.lib.umich.edu/govdocs/steduc.html#allus>

This assignment can also be developed into a more global project asking students to compare educational data across countries in the world. Students often find the global comparisons more interesting and it makes for a stronger social stratification discussion. Here are some websites that might be useful for the global comparisons:

<http://www.nationmaster.com/index.php>
<http://devdata.worldbank.org/edstats/cd.asp>
<http://www.lib.umich.edu/govdocs/steduc.html#allintl>

Try It Exercise: Exploring the Relationship between Gender, Illiteracy and Poverty in the World (does not appear in text)

Developed by Katherine R. Rowell, Sinclair Community College

OBJECTIVE: This activity will help you explore the relationship between gender, illiteracy and poverty in the world.

STEP 1: Review the chapter on education before beginning this activity.

STEP 2: For this activity you will need to think about the relationship between gender, illiteracy, and poverty in the world. The best place to start is by exploring the UNESCO website (The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization). You may want to research the library for resources and the Internet. The following link is a good place to start (You can also try searching for information on the United Nations Literacy Decade for more information):

http://portal.unesco.org/education/en/ev.php-URL_ID=41132&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

STEP 3: Using information gathered from your research, write a two to three page paper answering the following questions: What is the relationship between gender, illiteracy and poverty in the world? Does it seem that the United Nations is aware of this relationship? Why or Why not? Be sure to cite any information used from outside sources in this paper.

STEP 4: Bring your paper and thoughts to class. Be prepared to discuss how all of this is related to United Nations Millennium Development goals to end global poverty (You will find information about these goals on the UNESCO website).

Instructor's Notes: This activity is also related to the activity included in the Kimmel book in this chapter. See websites noted in the instructor directions. You may want to require students to do educational profiles by country and to include more data on this particular assignment. This activity does require access to a computer and the Internet. As noted several times with all the activities provided, you may need to adapt them to your classroom needs. You may also want to combine this activity with Chapter 9 on Sex and Gender to help students make connections between chapters. It is also beneficial to discuss the Beijing Conference on Women to help students understand the importance of this issue. Here are some other references that may be helpful for this assignment:

<http://www.un.org/ecosocdev/geninfo/women/women96.htm>
<http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/platform/>

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (does not appear in text)

Complete Formal Schooling

Americans in general place a high value on education. One's life chances are directly related to one's education, as are one's income, social group, and even one's potential marriage partner pool. In the United States, children are required by law to go to school until they are 16 years of age, and according to the U.S. Department of Education, 85% of 25-29 year olds in 2005 had completed high school.

So, what do you think?

How important is it that young people should complete formal schooling?

- a. Extremely Important
- b. Quite Important
- c. Somewhat Important
- d. Not Too Important
- e. Not At All Important

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2002.

How important is it that young people should complete formal schooling? Almost three-quarters of respondents in 2002 said it was extremely important that the young complete formal education. Another eighteen percent thought it was quite important. Only about three percent thought it was not too important, or not at all important. Social class differences were not large, but those in the working class were among the most likely (71.7%) to think it was extremely important for young people to finish school. 82.7% of the upper class agreed.

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTION

1. Although the social class differences in responses are small, they are interesting. Why do you think those in the lower class and the upper class are more likely to say formal schooling is extremely important?

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (p. 457)**Confidence in Education**

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2004.

As far as the people running the education system are concerned, would you say you have a great deal of confidence, only some confidence, or hardly any confidence at all in them? Data from 2004 show that over half of all respondents have only some confidence in the education system. Slightly more than thirty percent have a great deal of confidence, and thirteen percent have hardly any. Differences by race were significant and interesting. Black respondents were far more likely than white respondents to have confidence in the education system. These differences have remained steady since the 1970's.

Table: Confidence in Education by Race %

	White	Black	Other	Total
A Great Deal	29.5	40.5	34.6	31.2
Only Some	56.8	48.3	54.3	55.5
Hardly Any	13.7	11.2	11.1	13.3

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. The differences in survey response by race were striking. Why do you think that black respondents were dramatically more likely to have a great deal of confidence in the education system than were white respondents, particularly since black students have generally and historically been underserved by the educational system?
2. Conversely, why do you think white respondents were so pessimistic about the educational system?

Teaching Suggestions**Film**

- *It's Elementary: Talking about Gay Issues in School*: This documentary shows the various ways elementary and middle schools are teaching their students about gay and lesbian issues, from photo exhibits of gay and lesbian families to discussing stereotypes about gay and lesbian people with guest speakers. Before showing the film, ask students to think about (or discuss as a class) what they imagine it might be like to discuss gay and lesbian issues with young children, whether they think it is appropriate or not, and why. Students will likely gain a more nuanced view after watching the film, which shows a great deal of maturity on these issues from students of all ages. The film is a useful way to discuss debates around multicultural education and the various political battles that

have occurred about public school curricula. It also allows you to connect your discussion back to topics in the chapter on sexuality.

In-Class Activities

- *Multiple Intelligences*: Help students better understand Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences by providing a series of examples for each type (for example, you could choose a sociological subject you have already studied in class and describe how someone who excels at each type of intelligence would best understand that topic). Discuss whether the class believes this theory is valid, whether all eight types of intelligence seem equally important and useful, whether they believe any types of intelligence are missing, and whether and how Gardner's theory should be incorporated into education. To broaden the discussion further, also discuss the debates around cultural literacy and what an "educated" person should know.
- *Bullying and School Violence*: Lead a class discussion about the problem of bullying and school violence. Students will have many examples and experiences to share from their recent high school years. Supplement the discussion with some statistics about bullying, information about the range of behaviors considered to be bullying, and how this behavior may relate to school shootings and other school violence. You may also want to find some media clips on the issue (e.g., talk shows like Oprah have had episodes on this topic) or show clips from teen movies that dramatize the problem to help provide a basis for discussion. Ask students to hypothesize causes of the problem and possible solutions, and discuss both causes and solutions from a sociological perspective.
- *A Professor's View of Student Life*: In class, share some excerpts or key points from some recent studies in which professors have written ethnographies of undergraduate life (see page 00). Discuss with the class whether or not they believe the professors have gotten it right. Use the discussion as a way to hearken back to research methods issues from earlier in the semester as well as discussing issues of social privilege in higher education and how student social life may support, illustrate, or reinforce the funneling effect of education.

Projects, Papers, and Homework Exercises

- *Gender Inequality in Education Field Project*: The chapter discusses Sadker and Sadker's famous study of gender inequality in schools. In class, discuss with students several types of observational evidence the Sadkers used to identify gender inequality (such as how often teachers called on boys as opposed to girls). Then, using these techniques, have students conduct their own observations in other classrooms (observing in one of their own classes, another class at your college that the professor will allow them to sit in on, or an elementary, junior high, or high school class they might have access to). Have them write up their findings. In class, combine all the students' findings and determine whether your mini-study has identified the same sorts and levels of gender inequality the Sadkers found.

- *Education Around the World*: Ask each student to select a country, ensuring that the class overall has selected a wide range of developed and developing nations. Have the students do some research on education in that country, from preschool through higher education. They should examine who gets to attend school, whether and how tracking occurs, what schooling at different levels costs (if anything), the use of entrance and exit exams, the focus of the curricula in that country, how successful each country's educational program is (e.g., how do the students rank on international tests of scientific literacy, math skills, etc.), and any other pertinent issues specific to education in that country (e.g., concerns about pushing children too hard in Japan). Have the students share their findings with the class, and discuss what the class thinks American education does well compared to the rest of the world, as well as what we could learn from education in other countries. (You could combine this exercise with the Try It exercise from this chapter, which asks students to compare the educational profiles of different states, if desired.)

For Further Research and Reading

References Cited in the Text

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Additional Sources

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Chapter Fifteen: Sociology of Environments: The Natural, Physical, and Human Worlds

Chapter Summary

The natural, physical, and human worlds are closely interrelated and must be studied in relationship to each other. Demographers study the human environment, focusing in particular on birth, death, and migration. Starting with Malthus, some demographers have expressed concerns over population growth and how it would affect the world. Some have made efforts to reduce population growth as a result of these concerns.

Sociologists also seek to understand the physical environments we live in, including the development of cities, suburbs, and megalopolises and how they affect our experiences and behavior. Early sociologists had many concerns about how urban life would affect people, but more recent theories point to positive effects of city life as well.

The natural environment currently faces threats including high levels of energy consumption, global warming, and vanishing resources. Sociologists study these changes and their human causes, as well as now study the sociology of disasters.

Learning Objectives

- To be able to explain why it is important to study the physical, natural, and human environments in relationship to each other.
- To be able to explain the major statistical rates demographers use to study societies and why they are important.
- To be able to interpret a population pyramid and understand its usefulness to demographers and social planners.
- To be able to discuss the debate about population growth and possible solutions to the problem.
- To be able to describe the development of cities worldwide, as well as the development of suburbs, megalopolises, and global cities.
- To be able to discuss early sociological theories about how city life affects us.
- To be able to identify major threats to the natural environment and their causes.

Chapter Outline

I. Introduction: Although we think of human beings, the cities they live in, and the physical world as separate realms, incidents like Hurricane Katrina and its aftermath show that they are related and interdependent. All three environments constrain and construct human action, help create and sometimes help destroy each other. Sociologists examine the dynamic relationships among these three environments.

II. The Human Environment: *Demography* is the scientific study of human populations and one of the oldest and most popular branches of sociology. It is used to calculate health, longevity, and political representation, and it is primarily concerned with the statistics of birth, death, and migration.

A. Being Born

- Demographers measure birth by looking at *fertility* and *fecundity*. Both high and low fertility rates pose problems for society.

B. Dying

- Demographers examine the *mortality rate* of a society to assess its relative health. Poor nations may have a higher mortality rate than rich nations, but they may have a lower rate because their fertility rate is so high. A high mortality rate usually signals famine, war, or disease in a country, preventing many people from reaching old age.
- Demographers are especially interested in the *infant mortality rate*, which is extremely low in wealthy countries. The infant mortality rate correlates with the effectiveness of a country's health care, level of nutrition, and various other quality of life factors.

C. Moving In, Moving Out

- Demographers also examine how people move in and out of a territory, voluntarily (as a result of push factors, such as a sluggish economy, and/or pull factors, such as having someone you know in the territory you are moving to) or involuntarily (e.g., fleeing political strife).
- There have been four major flows of immigration in modern history: (1) 1500-1800 as Europe established colonial empires around the world; (2) at about the same time, transportation of over 11 million Africans to the New World to work as slaves; (3) beginning around 1800, East Asians begin emigrating from China and some other countries to the New World; (4) 1880-1920, millions of Southern and Eastern Europeans emigrated to the New World to leave behind the political and economic strife of their countries.

D. Studying Immigration

- Demographers use the *immigration rate*, *emigration rate*, and *net migration rate* to study immigration. Rich countries tend to have net positive migration rates. A net negative migration rate suggests that a country is too poor to offer many jobs or is undergoing a political crisis.
- Demographers also examine *internal migration*. Their focus on only “significant” internal migration can sometimes be problematic based on how significance is defined. Internal migration is shaped by similar push and pull factors as international migration.

E. Population Composition

- Demographers also examine the *population composition* (the comparative numbers of men and women and various age groups). Examining the society’s sex ratio at birth can reveal whether there are severe environmental problems in an area, or whether a society is favoring one sex over another through abortion. The sex ratio for adults can reveal whether a society is particularly inhospitable for men or women.
- We represent the distribution of people of different age groups using a *population pyramid*. Demographers can use population pyramids to plan for the future social service needs of the society.

III. Population Growth: The world population is growing fast. The population is growing because in the past, having more children was economically reasonable. Even though it has become less so today, many cultures still place value and prestige on having many children, so families in those cultures continue to have many children. As infant mortality has declined, this phenomenon has led to population growth. 96% of the world’s population growth comes from poor countries.

A. How High Can It Go?

- *Malthusian theory* argues that the population will increase by geometric progression, doubling each generation, and that this population growth would outstrip our ability to produce food, causing global starvation. Malthus’s prediction failed to foresee the drop in the birth rate and improvements in our productivity in producing food.
- Marx criticized Malthus, arguing that it was not population growth, but rather unequal distribution of resources, that created problems for the masses. Critics point out that Marx did not take into account how uneven population growth contributes to global inequality.

- Paul Ehrlich's 1968 book *The Population Bomb* brought Malthus's ideas to the present day and argued that to avoid the problem of too much population growth, we should aim for *zero population growth*.

B. Demographic Transition

- Population growth is tied to technological development. According to *demographic transition theory*, population and technology spur each other's development, progressing through three stages: initial stage, transitional growth stage, and incipient decline stage. The theory has been criticized because there have been instances that did not progress in this direction, and because it is changes in personal and public health practices, not technology itself, that causes a decrease in the mortality rate.

C. Decreasing the Rate of Flow

- Several countries and international organizations have made efforts to control population growth.

IV. The Urban Environment

A. The City: Ancient to Modern

- Throughout most of human history, and in underdeveloped nations today, people must live in small settlements because they must live within walking distance of their farmland. Ancient cities grew up around rivers where enough food could be grown to feed a non-farming population. The number of "large" cities stayed about the same throughout the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. When the Industrial Revolution allowed agricultural productivity to increase exponentially, more cities grew because factories needed hundreds of workers all living in the same place. Cities in the U.S. in the 18th century were more like small towns because the country was conceived of as a nation of "gentleman farmers."
- The former colonial empires of Africa, Asia, and Latin America urbanized more slowly. Today, richer countries are those where more of the population lives in urban areas. (However, poorer countries are more likely to have megacities because rural people in poor countries have fewer choices of where to migrate to when they seek to move to the city.)
- The number of people in a city is not a good measure of how crowded it feels to live there. Rather, we must look at *population density*. The most densely populated cities are those that are physically constricted (e.g., because they are on an island). The more recently the city was founded, the lower the population density.

B. The Countryside

- So many people now live in unincorporated areas adjacent to big cities that it is better to examine living areas on a rural-urban continuum rather than in a simple dichotomy of city vs. countryside.
- Globalization increasingly impoverishes the countryside by concentrating agricultural enterprises into large agribusinesses and by locating engines of industrial development in or near urban areas.

C. Suburbs

- The availability of cars and racial fears of crime and violence in cities led to the growth of *suburbs*. Suburbs were criticized as homogenous, deadening, and isolated. But people moved there in large numbers because of assumed safety, the comfort of large homes with technological amenities, and ease of life (such as the ability to have a car). Due to “White flight” from the cities, suburbs grew four times faster than cities during the 1960s. Jobs and amenities went with them, and suburbs become edge cities with their own economic focus.

D. Revitalizing Downtown

- Many cities tried to revitalize themselves during the 1980s and 1990s, undergoing a process of *gentrification*. Increasingly, suburbs and edge cities are difficult to distinguish from inner cities. In addition, as suburbs continue to expand outward, they begin to meet the suburbs of adjacent cities, forming a *megapolis* which faces enormous structural problems.

V. Sociology and the City: Early sociologists were fascinated and appalled by life in cities. Sociologists like Tönnies, Durkheim, and Simmel proposed theories about how city life functioned and how it affected the people who live in cities.

A. Human Ecology

- *Human ecology* looks at the interrelations of human beings within a shared social environment, including the physical size and shape of the city, its social and economic dynamics, and its relationship to other cities and the natural world.
- Louis Wirth’s “Urbanism as a Way of Life” combined the insights of Tönnies and Durkheim to discuss how the move from villages to cities changes how people think and feel. In particular, he argued that people in cities interact with others on only a superficial level. Gans provided a

counterargument, stating that social networks are the same size in both the city and the small town.

- Park and Burgess studied how human ecology affected the use of urban space, examining how race and class influence the creation of a series of concentric zones of activity.

B. Global Urbanization

- Urbanization was, for a time, considered a sign of economic development, but it is now clear that the reality is more complex. The majority of the population lives in urban areas in many poor countries today. The gap between rich and poor is more noticeable in these urban centers than anywhere else in the world.
- Many cities around the world have global rather than local ties. They are more interdependent on each other than on the countries they are located in and centrally involved in the global economy.

VI. The Natural Environment: The natural environment is organized into *ecosystems*, which are interdependent systems of organisms and their environment. Early sociologists saw the social world as a subset of the natural world, and others examined the impact of the social world on the natural world. Over time, however, social sciences stopped paying attention to the environment. The belief was that supplies of natural resources were limitless and therefore the issues did not need to be examined. Starting in the 1970s, we began to again see the environment as important, and some sociologists criticized the discipline as being too anthropocentric (focused on human life).

A. Energy

- Our energy needs have skyrocketed, and sociologists examine the social implications of dependence on oil and the search for sustainable energy sources, including the sorts of political and business environments that promote reliance on particular types of energy. The U.S. is by far the world's largest energy consumer, but not when this statistic is measured per capita.

B. Vanishing Resources

- Deforestation, desertification, the disappearance of plant and animal species are major types of environmental problems we face globally today.

C. Environmental Threats

- The environment is threatened by human-created problems, including pollution, garbage, and global warming.

D. The Sociology of Disaster

- A disaster is a sudden environmental change that results in a major loss of life and property. It can be human orchestrated or it can originate in nature (or it can be both). Sociologists are increasingly interested in studying disasters.

VII. Environments in the 21st Century

Key Terms from Chapter Fifteen

demographic transition theory: theory holding that the population and technology spur each other's development (p. 477).

demography: the scientific study of human populations (p. 468).

ecosystems: interdependent systems of organisms and their environment (p. 487).

emigration rate: the number of people leaving a territory each year per thousand of the population (p. 472).

fecundity: the maximum number of children that a woman could possibly have (p. 468).

fertility: the number of children that a woman has (p. 468).

fertility rate: the number of live births in a country per year (p. 469).

gentrification: process in which hip young professionals take over whole downtown neighborhoods, raising property values so much that poor and even middle-class people can no longer afford to live there (p. 483).

human ecology: a discipline of the social sciences that looks at the interrelations of human beings within a shared social environment (p. 485).

immigration rate: the number of people entering a territory each year for every thousand of the population (p. 472).

infant mortality rate: the number of deaths per year in each thousand infants up to one year old (p. 469).

internal migration: moving from one region to another within a territory (p. 472).

life expectancy: the average number of years a person can expect to live (p. 469).

Malthusian theory: theory that the population would increase by geometric progression, doubling each generation, leading to more people than food and ultimately to global starvation (p. 476).

mechanical solidarity: a connection among people based on similarity (p. 484).

megalopolis: a gigantic city created when the outlying suburbs of one city meet those of another city (p. 483).

mortality rate: the number of deaths per year for every thousand people (p. 469).

natural population increase: the number of births every year subtracted by the number of deaths (p. 475).

net migration rate: the difference between the immigration and emigration rates in a given year (p. 472).

organic solidarity: a connection among people based on interdependence (p. 484).

population composition: the comparative numbers of men and women and various age groups (p. 473).

population density: the number of people per square kilometer (p. 480).

population pyramid: a graph that represents the distribution of people of different age groups (p. 474).

suburb: outlying areas near cities (p. 482).

zero population growth: situation where the number of births does not exceed the number of deaths (p. 477).

Key People from Chapter Fifteen

Emile Durkheim: sociologist who defined mechanical solidarity and organic solidarity as ways people connect in rural and urban settings (p. 484).

Paul Ehrlich: author of *The Population Bomb*, a modern take on Malthusian theory (p. 476-477).

Thomas Malthus: English economist and clergyman who was one of the first to suggest that population growth might spin out of control and lead to disaster (p. 476-477).

Georg Simmel: German sociologist who worried about the overstimulation of the city environment (p. 484-485).

Ferdinand Töennies: proposed the concepts of *gemeinschaft* and *gesellschaft* to explain how people connect in families, villages, and neighborhoods as opposed to how they connect in cities (p. 483-484).

Try It Exercise: Understanding Population Pyramids (does not appear in text)

Developed by Katherine R. Rowell, Sinclair Community College.

OBJECTIVE: Understand population data and apply them to potential policy issues.

STEP 1: Plan

Understanding the distribution of population within a country by age and sex is important in understanding future issues that may develop. This activity requires you to examine the population pyramids of three developed (mostly wealthy) countries and compare them to three developing (mostly poor) countries. To compare and contrast, choose the year 2000 for information on the population of the countries you choose.

STEP 2: Research

Go to the International Database of the U.S. Census Bureau www.census.gov/ipc/www/idb and choose your six countries (keep in mind three are to be developed, and three should be developing based on year 2000). For each country, either print out the pyramid or save the diagram in a document file.

STEP 3: Compare

Write a one-page paper comparing and contrasting the pyramids. Did you notice any patterns? What seem to be the main population issues facing the developed countries? What seem to be the main issues facing the developing countries? What do you think the future holds? Take a look at the information provided by the Population Reference Bureau: website (www.prb.org) and search for the World Population Clock, 2006. How does this information compare to your overall thoughts in Step 2? Based on world population data, what population issues do you see in the world? Explain in a short paragraph.

STEP 4: Discuss

Be prepared to turn in your work for this activity in class and to discuss and share your results.

Instructor's Notes: This activity can be easily adapted to classroom use. You may want to print out population pyramids prior to class and divide the class into groups and have them analyze the population pyramids as part of an in-class assignment. You could also develop overheads or slides to show the pyramids to the entire class and have an in-class quiz where students answer basic questions about the pyramids. There are numerous ways to use these in a classroom setting. For a more complicated activity, consider giving the students the data and having them construct the pyramids. Here are some useful websites:

http://www.uvm.edu/~agri99/spring2004/Population_Pyramids_in_Excel.html

<http://faculty.washington.edu/krumme/350/exercises/poppyr.html>

<http://www.prb.org/Educators/LessonPlans/2005/PopulationBuildingaFoundation/Activities/Activity3.aspx>

Try It Exercise: Understanding Global Hunger through a Computer Game

Developed by Katherine R. Rowell, Sinclair Community College

OBJECTIVE: This activity is designed to help explore the issues of global hunger and poverty through an interactive computer game and website developed by the United Nations World Food Program. (UNDP).

STEP 1: Review the chapter on the sociology of environments and media before beginning this activity. Also take a moment to review the specific directions developed by your instructor for this activity. Many instructors may not expect you to play the entire game but may rather expect you to evaluate it for content and impact.

STEP 2: Go to the United Nations World Food Program website and download and play the game Food Force (You will have to follow all the directions provided on the website). Please note that some instructors may plan on demonstrating this in class and others may expect you to complete this assignment using your own computer. While this game was originally designed to be used by junior high and high school students, it also has very good information about the nature of food programs in the world. If you recall the chapter on media, much has been said and written about the negative impact of video games on culture. While playing this game, keep in mind that part of your experience in playing this game is to evaluate the impact that “positive” video gaming may have on culture. If you know any adolescents you might want to send them the information on this game and ask them to play it and respond to similar questions below (you can include their answers in your responses below).

STEP 3: After playing the game or just examining the six different missions, take a moment and answer the following questions (you will want to record these on a separate sheet of paper):

1. How realistic is this game? Explain.
2. What surprised you about this game?
3. What did you learn about hunger from playing this game?
4. Do you think games like these can be important in helping young people and even adults learn more about global issues in the world? Explain.

STEP 4: Watch the clip called “Counting the Hungry” on the same website:

http://www.wfp.org/aboutwfp/introduction/counting_the_hungry/infodiag.asp?section=1&subsection=1

STEP 5: Take a moment and explore three of the UNDP hunger hot spots and record the following information for each country below:

http://www.wfp.org/country_brief/hunger_map/map/hungermap_popup/index.swf

Name of country:

How many people hungry?

Causes:

Solutions:

STEP 6: After completing steps 4-6, write a brief one to two page reflection paper on what you think some of the solutions are to global hunger. Be sure to use information provided by the UNDP in your report (Also attach your answers to steps 3 and 5).

STEP 7: Be prepared to turn your paper into your instructor and to discuss the results of this activity. Please note that some instructors may allow class time to work on this project and permit students to work in groups.

Instructor's Notes: While this game was developed for a younger age group, it may be used as a launching board to help you explore using games and scenarios in the classroom. Please note that you do not have to use the game in class and may wish to only assign parts of this assignment. There are numerous organizations and films that can be used to help students understand hunger in the world. Here are just a few to consider:

http://www.redsofts.com/articles/read/93/4729/The_Current_Status_of_World_Hunger.html

<http://www.worldhunger.org/>

http://www.wfp.org/country_brief/hunger_map/map/hungermap_popup/map_popup.html

Non-traditional students often appreciate this assignment with the game included because they enjoy sharing “homework” with their children. You may want to think about this activity and ask your students for help in identifying other types of computer experiences that could be used to help future students learn sociological concepts. This might be an additional activity that you can assign to students. Ask them to locate a computer game or online game that might help future students understand a sociological concept and write up a one page report and/or share in class. Depending on where you teach and the types of students you may have in class, an increasing number of students are engaging in online communities. For many of the activities in this manual, you may want to consider permitting students to post projects on youtube or developing blogs about the topics. There are increasingly numerous mediums to enable students to share class projects and materials. As part of this textbook, Allyn and Bacon will be developing a useful activity website that will include numerous learning activities with more resources to further aid in the development of these types of activities. This particular activity is really meant to be an introduction and an easy way to test this type of activity in a college classroom. There are numerous pedagogical articles and books on this topic. Here are just a few to consider:

http://www.cte.usf.edu/bibs/active_learn/social/bib_social.html

<http://davidmcdivitt.wordpress.com/2006/08/02/the-sims-application-in-sociology/>

Using Computer Assignments to Promote Active Learning in the Undergraduate Social Problems Course

Theodore D. Fuller

Teaching Sociology, Vol. 26, No. 3 (Jul., 1998), pp. 215-221

A Force More Powerful (This is a great game that teaches how to solve conflict through peace. It was developed for the college student.)

<http://www.reachandteach.com/store/index.php?action=item&id=160>

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (p. 490)

Environmental Threats and Science

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2000.

Many of the claims about environmental threats are greatly exaggerated. *Less than thirty percent of respondents agreed or strongly agreed with this statement, and almost forty-three percent disagreed or strongly disagreed. Those in the middle and upper classes were most likely to disagree, while those in the lower class were most likely to agree. Age and race differences were not significant.*

Modern science will solve our environmental problems with little change to our way of life. *Almost fifty percent of respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement, while only twenty-two percent agreed or strongly agreed. Those in the upper class were most likely to disagree.*

CRITICAL THINKING AND DISCUSSION QUESTION

1. Why do you think there are social-class differences in the survey responses?

What Do You Think/What Does America Think? (does not appear in text)

What are we willing to do?

Regardless of whether environmental threats are exaggerated or not, they do exist. Most environmental advocates say we have to change our behavior in some ways in order to avert crises. Some people are very willing to change their behavior, but others discount the threats, or do not see them as immediately relevant. Most people probably fall somewhere in between, and engage in such activity as watching fuel consumption and recycling. So, what do you think?

How often do you make a special effort to sort glass or cans or plastic or papers and so on for recycling?

- a. Always
- b. Often
- c. Sometimes
- d. Never
- e. Not Available

This is actual survey data from the General Social Survey, 2000.

How often do you make a special effort to sort glass or cans or plastic or papers and so on for recycling? Almost thirty-three percent of respondents said they always recycle, twenty-four percent said they often recycle. Those in the upper class were much more likely to say they always recycle (50%), and those in the lower class were more likely to say they never recycle (16.2 %), although that percentage was still relatively low.

CRITICAL THINKING/DISCUSSION QUESTION

1. What do you think explains the social-class differences in responses?

Teaching Suggestions

Film

- *Race to Save the Planet*: This 10-episode series narrated by Meryl Streep engages environmental issues from a wide variety of perspectives, from the impact of waste on the environment to how environmental issues relate to world hunger to the political issues around making more environmentally sound public policies. The series addresses environmental issues in a global context, showing similarities and differences among various developed and developing nations. Some episodes also show connections to population growth issues and urbanization, also discussed in this chapter.
- *An Inconvenient Truth*: Al Gore's documentary on the threat of global warming helped earn him the Nobel Prize. Students are likely to find the film interesting and important, and it would be an effective way to expand upon the text's relatively brief discussion of environmental issues.

In-Class Activities

- *Life in the City*: The authors discuss how several early sociologists thought that city life affected people. Select engaging and prescient selections from the original texts of each of these authors and have students read them in class. Then, discuss the extent to which these thinkers, observing only the very early days of urban life, correctly described how living in an urban environment affects people. Also discuss what students can think of that the theorists did not predict or correctly explain about the effects of urban life.

Projects, Papers, and Homework Exercises

- *Ecological Footprint*: Ask students to visit <http://www.myfootprint.org/> and take the brief quiz to determine their personal ecological footprint (also called a carbon footprint). Also ask them to examine some other parts of the site, such as the additional quiz adding biodiversity issues into the analysis or the suggestions about how to reduce your ecological footprint. In class, discuss the results, the importance of our ecological footprints, and ways of reducing them.

For Further Research and Reading

References Cited in the Text

Erlich, Paul. *The Population Bomb*. New York: Ballantine, 1968.

Additional Sources

Carson, Rachel. *Silent Spring*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 2002.

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